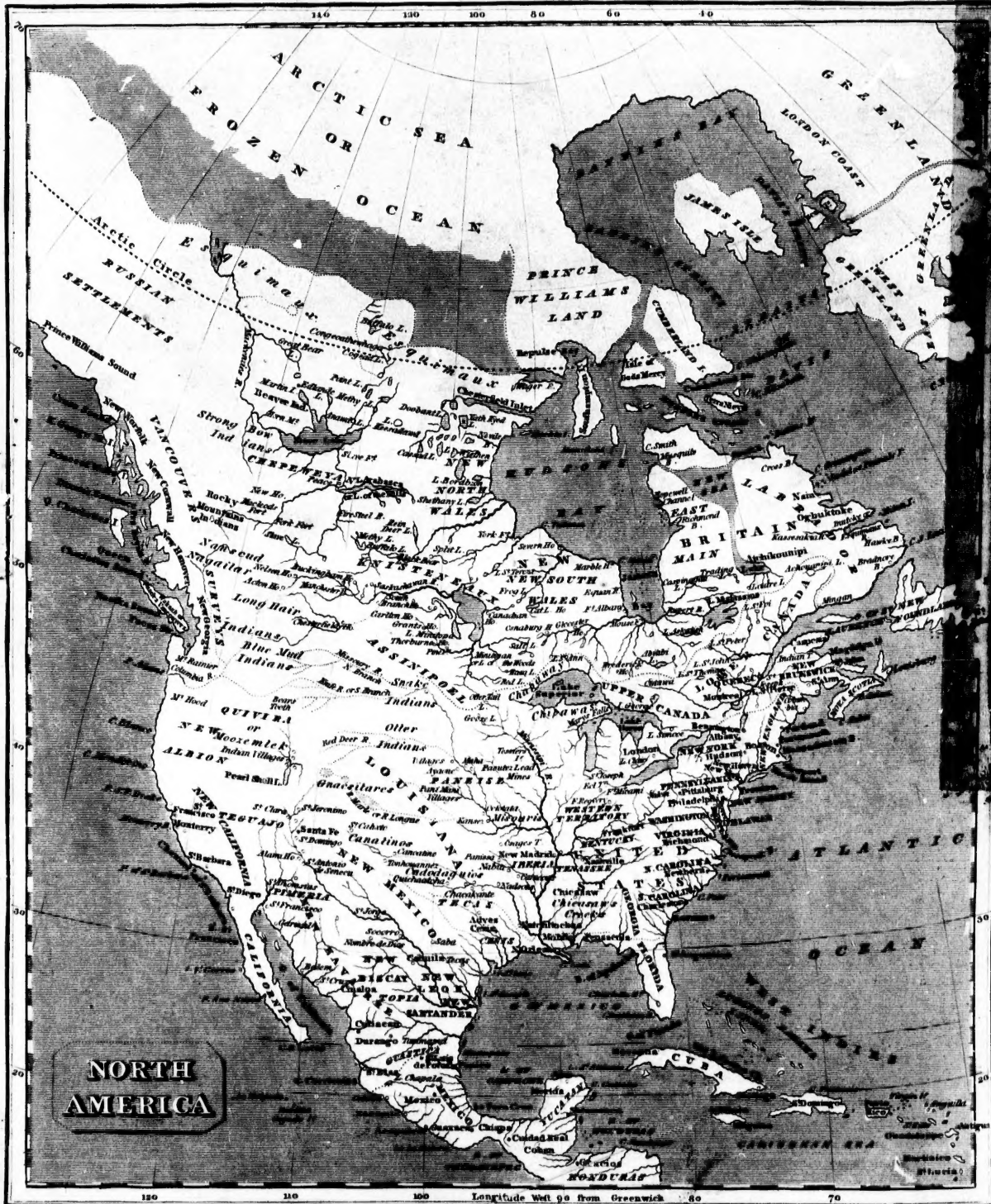




**NORTH
AMERICA**

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Universal Geog.
Mackenzie, New York 1817
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NORTH AMERICA.

NORTH AMERICA.

THIS division of the new continent is bounded on the east by the Atlantic; and on the west by the Great, or Pacific Ocean. On the south it is understood to extend to the vicinity of Panama. The northern limits have not yet been clearly ascertained; but as it is improbable that a slip of land, on the north-west of Hudson's Bay, should extend far to the north, the limit may probably be discovered about 74 or 75 deg. In the mean time 72 degrees may be safely assumed; whence to the southern boundary, about north lat. 7 deg. 30 min. as marked in the map of Lacruz, there will be 64½ degrees, or 3870 geographical miles; more than 4500 British.—The breadth from the promontory of Alaska to the extreme point of Labrador, or the Cape of St. Charles, will, by somewhat of a solecism, exceed the length, which last is however considered as forming part of the length of the general continent. If it should be discovered that Greenland is united to arctic lands of America, as Kamchatka is, for instance, to Asia, both the length and breadth will be greatly increased.

The climate of North America is extremely various, as may be conceived in a region extending from the vicinity of the equator to the arctic circle. In general, the heat of summer, and the cold of winter, are more intense than in most parts of the ancient continent. Near Hudson's Bay Fahrenheit's thermometer has risen in July to 85, and sunk in January to 45 below the cypher: but the mercury begins to congeal at 40, while the spirit of wine will shew 46. The predominant winds are here from the west; and the severest cold is from the north-west. The middle provinces are remarkable for the unsteadiness of the weather, particularly the quick transitions from heat to cold. Snow falls plentifully in Virginia, but seldom lies above a day or two; yet after a mild, or even warm day, James river, where it is two or three miles in breadth, has in one night been clothed with ice,

so as to be passed by travellers. Such surprising alterations seem to proceed from the sudden change of the wind to the north-west. The provinces of South Carolina and Florida are subject to unsufferable heat, furious whirlwinds, hurricanes, tremendous thunder, and fatal lightnings; and the sudden changes of the weather are alike pernicious to the human frame. A violent tuffoon happened near Charlestown in 1761, appearing like a column of smoke, with a noise like thunder, ploughing the very beds of the rivers, and diffusing universal destruction throughout its progress.

Few opportunities have yet arisen for accurate accounts of the climate, in the western parts of North America. That of California seems to be in general moderate and pleasant, though somewhat incommoded by the heat of summer. In lat. 59 deg. the land has a most barren and wintry appearance, even in June: the gloom is increased by frequent fogs, and the glaciers seem perpetual.

Among the inland seas of North America may be mentioned the gulfs of Mexico, California, and St. Lawrence; with Hudson's Bay, or rather Hudson's Sea, and what is called the strait of Davis, which is probably a sea of communication between the Atlantic and the arctic oceans. The existence of Baffin's Bay is doubtful, as already shewn; but there are several lakes of so great a size that they deserve to be distinguished by the name of seas, particularly Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, which constitute one piece of water, about 350 miles in length; and the great Slave Lake in the north is laid down as about 220 British miles in length. In Asia no hesitation has been shewn by geographers in applying the name of sea to the lake of Aral, which is about 200 miles in length; and the sea of Baikal, about 350. But the latter is not above 35 miles in breadth, while the lake Superior is more than 100.

Of all these seas the gulf of Mexico is the

most celebrated, as lying in a most favourable climate, and presenting at its entrance that grand archipelago of North American islands called the West Indies. From this gulf a singular current sets towards the north-east, this current called the gulf stream passes to the banks of Newfoundland, and is supposed to proceed from the accumulation of waters by the trade wind. It is distinguished from other parts of the ocean by the gulf weed; is eight or ten degrees warmer; never sparkles in the night; and when it arrives in cool latitudes produces thick fogs. The trade wind, or diurnal sea breeze, is from the east, and its collateral points, with little intermission, for nine months in the year. To the south of the gulf of Mexico is the Bay of Honduras, well known in the annals of English commerce.—The Caribbean sea may perhaps more properly be considered as belonging to South America.

The opposite shore presents the gulf of California, which seems an estuary of two large rivers. The jealous silence of the Spaniards concerning their American possessions affords but few materials for a proper illustration of their geography. The gulf of St. Lawrence is the well known estuary of a river of the same name, generally frozen from December to April. This noble gulf is closed by the island of Newfoundland, and by numerous sand-banks, particularly what is called the Great Bank. This celebrated fishing station is more than 400 miles in length, by about 140 in breadth; the water being from 22 to 50 fathoms, with a great swell, and frequently a thick fog. The chief fishery begins on the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September, the greatest number of cod fish, taken by a single fisherman, being twelve thousand, but the average is seven thousand: the largest fish was four feet three inches in length, and weighed forty-six pounds. More than 500 English vessels commonly fish on the bank; and the number used sometimes to be equalled by the French, who had formerly a settlement in the neighbouring isle of Cape Breton.

There are also great fisheries on the banks which lie off the coasts of Nova Scotia, particularly on that called Saddle Island Bank, or rather from the French *Sable*, the Isle of Sand, which is in the shape of a bow, about eight leagues in length, with a narrow pond of sea water in the middle, filled every tide by a narrow inlet.

Hudson Sea may be considered as extending from the entrance of Hudson Strait, to its western extremity, that is from long. 65 deg. west, to long. 95 deg. or thirty degrees of longitude, which in lat. 60 deg. will be 900 geographical miles, or about 1050 British, exceeding the Baltic in length as well as breadth. The shores are generally rocky and precipitous, and the climate almost the perpetual abode of winter, the hot weather in June being brief though violent. This sea is far from abundant in fish, but the common whale is found; and the Beluga, or white whale, is taken in considerable numbers in June, when the rivers in the south have discharged their ice. Large sturgeons are also caught near Albany. Shell fish are extremely rare, common muscles alone being frequent.—The large track of territory on the south of this sea is the property of the Hudson's Bay Company, whose chief profits are derived from furs. This sea has been repeatedly explored for a north-west passage, perhaps as little to be expected as a passage from the Baltic into the arctic ocean, or the Euxine. Chesterfield inlet is a singular strait stretching far to the west, but terminates in a magnificent lake of fresh water, communicating with this sea by what may be called a broad river; the adjacent land being level, rich in pasture, and abounding with deer. But it is probable that in the north-east Hudson Sea opens into the arctic ocean, where the perpetual ice presents a complete barrier to commercial views.

The Gulf, or Sea of Davis may be considered as part of the Sea of Hudson, and probably joins the arctic ocean. What is called Baffin's Bay is laid down as extending from 46 deg. west long. to 94 deg. which, supposing the degree only 16 geographical miles, would yield a length of 768 geographical miles; and the breadth on the west side is represented as little inferior. As this sea is perhaps wholly imaginary, it is unnecessary to enlarge on the subject: and it shall only be observed that the west coast of Greenland has not been explored beyond lat. 72 deg. or Sanderson's Hope, and an old Danish settlement called Opernevig. In the midst of Baffin's Bay many maps present a large tract called James Island, which perhaps is a promontory passing from Greenland, or a large isle in the north of Hudson Sea, laid down from erroneous observations.

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the Caspian Sea, but those of Aral and Baikal have been commemorated, so the vast lakes, above mentioned, may here be considered as detached inland seas.

The lake Superior, Michigan, and Huron, in this point of view, form one large inland sea, which might be called the sea of Canada, or that of Huron. This expansion of water, as already mentioned, is about 350 miles in length, and more than 100 at its greatest breadth: according to the French charts, that part of this sea, which is called Lake SUPERIOR, is not less than 1500 miles in circumference. The greater part of the coast seems to consist of rocks and uneven ground, like those of the sea of Baikal. The water is pure and transparent; and the bottom generally composed of large rocks.—There are several islands, one of which called Minong is about 60 miles in length: the savages suppose that these islands are residences of the Great Spirit. More than thirty rivers fall into this lake, some of them of considerable size, but the geography is far from being perfect. The banks of a river on the north-west abound with native copper. The chief fish are sturgeon and trout; the latter being caught at all seasons, and said to weigh from twelve to fifty pounds. This part of the sea of Canada opens into the lake Huron, by the straits of St. Mary, about 40 miles in length, and in some places only one or two miles in breadth; with a rapide towards the north-west extremity, which may however be descended by canoes, and the prospects are here delightful. The storms on this large expanse of water are as dangerous as those on the ocean, the waves breaking more quick, and running nearly as high. The circumference of that part called Lake HURON is said to be about 1000 miles; and on the northern side are some islands called Manitulan, implying the place of spirits. Another short strait leads into the third lake called MICHIGAN, also navigable for ships of any burthen. When the population of North America shall have diffused itself towards the west, these lakes may become the seats of flourishing cities, and of arts and sciences now unknown in Europe. Their latitude corresponds with that of the Black Sea, and the gulf of Venice; nor are the rigours of the Baltic here to be apprehended. From the descriptions it does not appear that these lakes are ever impeded with ice.

The lake of Winnipeg or Winipic may also

well aspire to the name of an inland sea: but it yields considerably to the great Slave lake, or rather sea, a recent discovery, from which Mackenzie's river extends its course to the arctic ocean. The Slave sea, according to Mr. Arrow-smith's maps, is about 200 miles in length, by 100 at its greatest breadth. The geography of this lake is rather imperfect; and it is not improbable that other large lakes may be found in the western regions of North America, which remain unexplored.

The smaller lakes shall be briefly described in the divisions of territory to which they belong. It may here suffice to observe that there are probably above two hundred lakes of considerable size in North America; a singularity which distinguishes it from any other portion of the globe. A theorist might perhaps consider this an additional argument for the novelty of this continent, as the waters still cover so much of its surface.

In the ancient continent the rivers and mountains are usually confined within the limits of some great state; to which, of course, the description becomes appropriated. But in America these features are on so great a scale, that they pervade immense territories, divided among distinct nations, whence it would be difficult to assign a just arrangement. The river of Amazons, for example, pursues a long course in Spanish America, and an equal extent through the Portuguese territory, if the French do not now claim the northern shore. The river Mississippi, or rather Missouri, belongs in part to the American States and in part to Spain. Amidst this uncertainty, it seems preferable to describe the chief rivers and mountains under the general heads of North and South America.

Length of course seems universally and justly considered as the chief distinction of a river, which becomes noble as it were by the extent of its genealogy; while the great breadth and depth of a short stream issuing from a lake would deserve little attention. In this point of view the Mississippi is the most distinguished among the rivers of North America; its source having already been traced to three small lakes above lat. 47 deg. and it enters the sea in lat. 29 deg. after a comparative course of about 1400 British miles. Nay, of late, the sources of the Missouri (the chief stream) have been detected about 600 British miles more remote. The account of this noble river shall be transcribed

from a recent system of American geography, as the author must have had several opportunities of being well informed.

The Mississippi receives the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches from the east; and of the Missouri, and other rivers, from the west. These mighty streams united are borne down with increasing majesty, through vast forests and meadows, and discharged into the gulf of Mexico. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, says Mr. Hutchins, and the excessive muddiness and salubrious quality of its waters after its junction with the Missouri, are very singular. The direction of the channel is so crooked, that from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a distance which does not exceed 460 miles in a straight line, is about 856 by water. It may be shortened at least 250 miles, by cutting across eight or ten necks of land, some of which are not thirty yards wide. Charlevoix relates that in the year 1722, at Point Coupée, or Cut Point, the river made a great turn; and some Canadians, by deepening the channel of a small brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuosity of the stream was so violent, and the soil of so rich and loose a quality, that in a short time the point was entirely cut through, and travellers saved fourteen leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflows only excepted. The new channel has been since sounded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom. Several other points of great extent have, in like manner, been since cut off, and the river diverted into new channels.

In the spring floods the Mississippi is very high, and the current so strong, that it is with difficulty it can be ascended; but this disadvantage is remedied in some measure by eddies, or counter currents, which are generally found in the bends close to the banks of the river, and assist the ascending boats. The current at this season descends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faster than two miles: but it is rapid in such parts of the river as have clusters of islands, shoals, and sand banks. The circumference of many of these shoals being several miles, the voyage is longer, and in some parts more dangerous, than in the spring. The merchandise necessary for the commerce of the

Upper Settlements, on or near the Mississippi, is conveyed in the spring and autumn, in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of islands, some of which are of great extent, intersperse that mighty river. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Iberville on the east, and the river Rouge on the west, never return within them again, there being many outlets or streams by which they are conducted into the bay of Mexico, more especially on the west side of the Mississippi, dividing the country into numerous islands. These singularities distinguish it from every other known river in the world. Below the Iberville the land begins to be very low on both sides of the river, across the country; and gradually declines as it approaches nearer to the sea. The island of New Orleans, and the lands opposite, are to all appearance of no long date, for in digging ever so little below the surface you find water, and great quantities of trees. The many beaches and breakers, as well as inlets, which have arisen out of the channel, within the last half century, at the several mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninsula was wholly formed in the same manner. And it is certain that when La Salle sailed down the Mississippi to the sea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at present.

The nearer you approach the sea this truth becomes more striking. The bars that cross most of these small channels, opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the streams; one of which, stopped by its roots or branches in a shallow part, is sufficient to obstruct the passage of thousands more, and to fix them at the same place. Astonishing collections of trees are daily seen in passing between the Balize and the Missouri. No human force is sufficient to remove them, and the mud carried down by the river serves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In less than ten years time canes, shrubs, and aquatic timber, grow on them; and form points and islands which forcibly shift the bed of the river.

'Nothing can be asserted with certainty respecting the length of this river. Its source is not known, but supposed to be upwards of three thousand miles from the sea as the river runs. We only know that from St. Anthony's falls in lat. 45 deg. it glides with a pleasant clear current, and receives many large and very extensive tributary streams, before its junction with the Missouri, without greatly increasing the breadth of the Mississippi, though they do its depth and rapidity. The muddy waters of the Missouri discolour the lower part of the river, till it empties into the Bay of Mexico. The Missouri is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Mississippi, and affords a more extensive navigation; it is, in fact, the principal river, contributing more to the common stream than does the Mississippi. It has been ascended by French traders about 12 or 1300 miles; and from the depth of the water and breadth of the river at that distance, it appeared to be navigable many miles further.

'From the Missouri river to nearly opposite the Ohio, the western bank of the Mississippi is, some few places excepted, higher than the eastern. From *Mine au Fer* to the Ibberville the eastern bank is higher than the western, on which there is not a single discernible rising or eminence for the distance of 750 miles. From the Ibberville to the sea there are no eminences on either side, though the eastern bank appears rather the highest of the two, as far as the *English turn*. Thence the banks gradually diminish in height to the mouths of the river, where they are but a few feet higher than the common surface of the water.

'The slime which the annual floods of the river Mississippi leave on the surface of the adjacent shores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which deposits a similar manure, and for many centuries past has insured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks shall have been cultivated, as the excellency of its soil and temperature of the climate deserve, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth, and power of America may at some future period depend, and perhaps center, upon the Mississippi. This also resembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all issuing into a sea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounded on the north and south by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican bay is by North and

South America. The smaller mouths of this river might be easily stopped up by means of those floating trees, with which the river, during the floods, is always covered. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep, and the bar be removed.

'Whoever will for a moment cast his eye over a map of the town of New Orleans, and the immense country around it, and view its advantageous situation, must be convinced that it, or some place near it, must in process of time become one of the greatest marts in the world.

'The falls of St. Anthony, in about lat. 45 deg. received their name from Father Lewis Hennepin, a French missionary, who travelled in those parts about the year 1680, and was the first European ever seen by the natives. The whole river, which is more than 250 yards wide, falls perpendicularly about thirty feet, and forms a most pleasing cataract. The rapids below, in the space of 300 yards, render the descent considerably greater, so that when viewed at a distance they appear to be much higher than they really are. In the middle of the falls is a small island about forty feet broad, and somewhat longer, on which grow a few scragged hemlock and spruce trees; and about half way between this island and the eastern shore is a rock lying at the very edge of the fall in an oblique position, five or six feet broad, and thirty or forty long. These falls are peculiarly situated, as they are approachable without the least obstruction from any intervening hill or precipice, which cannot be said of any other considerable fall perhaps in the world. The country around is exceedingly beautiful. It is not an uninterrupted plain, where the eye finds no relief, but composed of many gentle ascents, which in the spring and summer are covered with verdure, and interspersed with little groves, that give a pleasing variety to the prospect.

'A little distance below the falls is a small island of about an acre and a half, on which grow a great number of oak trees, almost all the branches of which able to bear the weight are, in the proper season of the year, loaded with eagles' nests. Their instinctive wisdom has taught them to choose this place, as it is secure, on account of the rapids above, from the attacks of either man or beast.

'From the best accounts that can be obtained

from the Indians, we learn that the four most capital rivers on the continent of North America, viz. the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, the river Bourbon, and the Oregon, or the river of the West, have their sources in the same neighbourhood. The waters of the three former are said to be within thirty miles of each other; the latter is rather further west.

This shews that these parts are the highest lands in North America; and it is an instance not to be paralleled in the three other quarters of the globe, that four rivers of such magnitude should take their rise together, and each, after running separate courses, discharge their waters into different oceans, at the distance of more than two thousand miles from their sources.—For in their passage from this spot to the bay of St. Lawrence, east; to the bay of Mexico, south; to Hudson's bay, north; and to the bay at the straits of Annian, west, where the river Oregon is supposed to empty, each of them traverses upwards of two thousand miles.

The Ohio is a most beautiful river. Its current gentle, waters clear, and bosom smooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a single instance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at Fort Pitt; 500 yards at the mouth of the Great Kanaway; 1200 yards at Louisville; and the rapids half a mile in some few places below Louisville: but its general breadth does not exceed 600 yards. In some places its width is not 400; and in one place particularly, far below the rapids, it is less than 300. Its breadth in one place exceeds 1200 yards; and at its junction with the Mississippi neither river is more than 900 yards wide.

Mr. Morse proceeds to state the precise measurement of the length of the Ohio, with all its windings, from Fort Pitt to its junction with the Mississippi, amounting to 1188 miles. The inundations commonly begin with April, and subside in July. A vessel drawing twelve feet water might safely navigate from Pittsburg to the sea. Two great rivers unite to form the Ohio, namely the Monongahela, and the Alleghany, both of them subservient to navigation.

From the preceding ample description, which the great importance of these rivers to the prosperity of North America authorises, it appears that, setting aside the capricious distinctions of the savage tribes, the Missouri must be regarded as the chief river which constitutes what is called the Mississippi. Measured on the same

merely comparative scale which has been adopted to give a general idea of the length of the rivers in Europe and Asia, the Missouri or Mississippi will be about 2000 miles in length. The great river of St. Lawrence is far inferior, being chiefly remarkable for its breadth. In South America the Marañon, or river of Amazons, measured on the same comparative scale, will be found to be about 2300, and the Rio de la Plata about 1900. In the same comparative way, measured on the accurate planisphere of Mr. Arrowsmith, the Kian Ku exceeds the Missouri and rivals the Marañon, which last is probably also rivalled by the Ob. Some deceptions have arisen on this curious subject, as the large rivers in America have been computed by actual navigation of the whole, or a part, in which every winding is taken into the account; while the length of those in Asia has been merely assumed from the general appearance in maps, without due attention to the innumerable deviations. A favourable climate, and other circumstances, render the American rivers more navigable; the Ob being impeded by ice, and the Kian Ku by the alpine rocks of Tibet.

The Missouri, says a late writer, 'like the St. Lawrence and river of Amazons, is a white muddy stream, while the Mississippi is clear like the Black River, which falls into that of Amazons.' Charlevoix has described the confluence as the grandest in the world. Each river is about half a league in breadth; but the Missouri is the broadest and the most rapid. Le Page du Pratz, in his history of Louisiana, says the French word *Mississippi* is a contraction of the savage term *Meact-Chassippi*, which literally denotes the ancient Father of Rivers. Mr. Hutchins observes, that the natives still call it Meschasipi; and the same author adds, that the Missouri 'affords a more extensive navigation, and is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Mississippi.' It appears from Mr. Mackenzie's voyages, 1802, that some rivers of North America have sunk more than ten feet beneath their ancient level.

The noble river of St. Lawrence is universally regarded as the second in North America, being not less than 90 miles wide at its mouth, and navigable for ships of the line as far as Quebec, a distance of 400 miles from the sea. Near Quebec it is five miles in breadth; and at Montreal from two to four. Though there be some rapids, yet this grand river may be considered as navi-

gable to Kingston, and the lake Ontario, 743 miles from the sea. It is difficult to define the precise source of the St. Lawrence, though that name be generally confined to the river issuing from lake Ontario; while the Niagara, which flows from the lake Erie, is regarded as a distinct stream. As in Asiatic geography the Angara is traced from the sea of Baikal, without assuming the Selenga as a further source, so by analogy the St. Lawrence cannot be traced beyond the lake Ontario, nor can geographical usage permit it to be traced to the lake Superior; and far less, with Mr. Weld, to the lake Winipic, which, according to the best maps, has no communication whatever with what has been above called the sea of Canada, consisting of the joint lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron. The length of the St. Lawrence may therefore be about 700 British miles, the breadth being the grand characteristic.

The other chief rivers in North America are the Saskashawin, the Athabasca, the Unjiga or Mackenzie's river, the Rio Bravo, which flows into the gulf of Mexico; that of Albany, which joins Hudson's Bay: Nelson river and Churchill river are also considerable streams which flow into that sea; but their geography is far from being perfect. The same observation must be extended to the Oregon, or great river of the west, which, confined by a chain of mountains, runs south, till by a western bend it join the Pacific. But the discovery of the western regions of America may disclose some considerable streams in that quarter.

MOUNTAINS.—The mountains of North America are far from rivalling the Andes in the south. Some irregular ranges pervade the Isthmus, but it seems mere theory to consider them as connected with the Andes, as they have neither the same character nor direction. In the Isthmus there are also several volcanoes; but the natural history of Spanish America is extremely imperfect.

The centre of North America seems to present a vast fertile plain, watered by the Missouri and its auxiliary streams. On the west, so far as discovered, a range of mountains proceeds from New Mexico in a northern direction, and joins the ridge called the Stoney Mountains, which extend to the vicinity of the Arctic ocean. The Stoney Mountains are said to be about 3500 feet above their base, which may perhaps be 3000 feet above the sea. In general, from the accounts

of navigators who have visited this coast, it seems to resemble that of Norway, being a wide alpine country of great extent; while the shore, like that of Norway, presents innumerable creeks and islands. This alpine tract, from the Stoney Mountains and Mackenzie's river westwards to the source of the Oregon and Beering's Strait, may perhaps contain the highest mountains in North America, when completely explored by the eye of science. On the north-east, Greenland, Labrador, and the countries around Hudson Sea, present irregular masses covered with eternal snow, with black naked peaks, resembling in form the spires of the alps, but of far inferior elevation, mountains generally decreasing in height towards the pole. Mr. Mackenzie observes, that a high ridge passes south-west from the coast of Labrador to the source of the Utawas, dividing the rivers that fall into St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay. The Stoney Mountains run parallel with the Pacific from Cook's entry to the river Columbia, where they are more distant from the coast and less elevated. The rocks west of Winipic are soft limestone, on the east a dark grey granite: and all the great lakes are between the limestone and granite ranges.

The most celebrated mountains in North America are those called the Apalachian, passing through the territory of the United States from the south-west to the north-east. According to the best maps they commence on the north of Georgia, where they give source to many rivers running south to the gulf of Mexico; and to the Tenassee and others running north. There are several collateral ridges, as the Iron or Bald Mountains, the White Oak Mountains, and others; the exterior skirt on the north-west being the Cumberland Mountains. The Apalachian chain thence extends through the western territory of Virginia, accompanied with its collateral ridges, the breadth of the whole being often seventy miles, and proceeds through Pennsylvania, then passes Hudson river; and afterwards rises to more elevation, but seems to expire in the country of New Brunswick. The chief summits appear to be in the province of New Hampshire; where the White Mountains are by some reported to be 9000 feet above the sea. But it may well be affirmed that they cannot exceed much 4000 feet: and the glaciers of the Pyrenees at 9000 feet shew the futility of the calculation.

The Apalachian chain may thus extend about 900 geographical miles, a length unrivalled by any European mountains, except the Norwegian alps. In no chain perhaps are the collateral ridges more distinct; and a naturalist would at once pronounce that the central, or highest, must be granitic, the next schistose, and the exterior belts calcareous. The granite seems commonly to consist of white felspar, bluish or rather pellucid quartz, and black mica. The schistose band, generally metalliferous in other regions, here presents copper ore; and in Canada lead and silver are said to have been discovered. The limestone contains, as usual, many petrifications, particularly the cornu ammonis, a small scallop shell, and several sorts of corals.—The height of the chief summits does not appear to be precisely ascertained, but probably does not exceed 3000 feet above the sea; and they are often clothed with forests. Mr. Weld conjectures that the Peaks of Otter, the highest of what are called the Blue Mountains, are little more than 2000 feet in height; and at any rate much inferior to that of Snowdon.

The late travels of the duke de Rochefoucault in North America, present some valuable information concerning the orology. The primitive calcareous rock is mingled, in veins or banks, with the granitic, and is evidently contemporary. Near Philadelphia large pieces of talc appear, instead of mica. There are also veins of hornblende, quartz, and marble, in the position of metallic veins. It is a remarkable feature in the mineralogy that the granitic mountains approach nearest to the sea, while at a greater distance the rocks are calcareous; and the red primitive limestone is sometimes covered with breccia, and argillaceous schistus. The lakes of Upper Canada are surrounded with calcareous rocks; while in Lower Canada, from Montreal to the sea, the granite predominates. At the isle of St. Helen this substance is apparent, and at the mountain of Beloeil displays much black schorl. The black slate of our traveller is the black schistose limestone of Kalm. The rock of Quebec is said to consist of grey granite, mingled with schorls; and was called the rock of diamonds, because quartz crystals were found. In the vicinity blocks of granite are mingled with limestone, and the bank of Newfoundland is supposed to be a mass of granite, covered with sand. Towards New York and Boston the rocks are of a soft granite in-

terspersed with limestone and schistus; but towards Carolina and Florida the granitic mountains are at a considerable distance from the sea, which seems gradually to have retired. This observing traveller is of opinion that the highest mountains in North America do not exceed the elevation of the Vosges in France, that is perhaps 4 or 5000 feet.

But from the travels of Kalm, a far more skilful naturalist, it would appear that the rocks of North America often consist of a substance unknown to modern systems of mineralogy, and which may be termed *calcareous granite*, the absence of the felspar being supplied by primitive limestone. The Swedish traveller minutely describes this substance, as consisting of grey limestone, purple, or garnet coloured quartz, and black mica. The limestone effervesces strongly with aqua-fortis; and there are some particles of felspar. Another mountain, near the river St. Lawrence, is composed of red felspar, black mica, white limestone, with grains of the purple or red quartz. Sometimes this calcareous granite is schistose, or assumes the form of gneiss. Part of the hills near the isle of Orleans is composed of grey quartz, reddish and grey limestone, and grains of sand. Near Fort St. Frederick, or Crown Point, Kalm observed fragments of granite mixed with schorl, without any calcareous addition; and he found ammonites about two feet in diameter. Towards the lake Champlain he observed quantities of red sand, which seemed to be decomposed or pounded garnets. The Apalachian mountains he does not appear to have examined: but he mentions the calcareous granite as frequent in Pennsylvania. The hatchets of the savages were frequently of fine basalt; their knives of quartz and petrosilex; their kettles of lapis olaris, grey or green; and their tobacco pipes of the same substance; but those of the chiefs, of beautiful red serpentine, from the west of the Mississippi.

The mountains in the Isthmus, as well as those in the western part of North America, are certainly of far superior elevation: and in most maritime divisions of the old and new continents the highest mountains are towards the west, as their most precipitous sides uniformly front the west and south. But of the Isthmus, the kingdom of Mexico, and California, the natural history and geography are far from being clearly illustrated. In the province of Darien the

Andes, according to the best maps, seem to expire in the ridge called Sierra Tagargona, which may be said to be lost in the sea on the west of the gulf of Darien. This ridge, with the peak of Panama, belong to South America: but the inspection of any good map of this part will sufficiently shew that the ridges in the province of Panama have not the smallest connection with the Andes, but are scattered in every direction. On the west of that province, as already stated, a considerable chain passes north and south, which may be regarded as a natural division between the two great portions of America. This chain is called the Sierra de Canatagua. The ridges in Veragua also run north and south, and on the west of that province is the volcano of Varu. Of the nature and height of the mountains in Mexico there is no particular account. Not far from Vera Cruz, Chappe D'Auteroche ascended a mountain of great height, which seems to have been volcanic; and he adds that the mountain of Orisaba is said to be the highest in that region, the snowy summit being visible from Mexico at the distance of twenty leagues.

On the western side of North America volcanoes have been observed by navigators; and one is said to exist in the province of New Hampshire.

INHABITANTS.—The next topic which occurs is the ancient population; but our knowledge of the American languages is still so imperfect, that the subject is involved in great doubts.—None of the native nations of America displays the smallest trace of the oblique eyes, and other remarkable features by which the inhabitants of eastern Asia are distinguished. Far from this, Pallas, Lesseps, Tooke, and other skilful enquirers, have pronounced that the Techucks and Koriacks undoubtedly proceeded from America, as they have not one Asiatic lineament.

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It is to be regretted that, neither in North nor South America, have the languages been compared, analysed, and classed, as has been done with regard to the numerous tribes subject to Russia and China. Hence, instead of solid knowledge, we are overwhelmed with petty distinctions, and names without ideas. Upon one point only do investigators seem to be agreed, that the friendly and helpless people in the furthest north, called Iskimos by the German settlers, and in the French mode of spelling Esquimaux, are the same race with the Samoieds of Asia, and Laplanders of Europe. These, with the Peruvians and Mexicans, Dr. Forster chuses to consider as strangers who have settled in America.

The curious question concerning the population of America can only be duly examined after the various dialects have been compared with those of Africa; for to those of Europe, or Asia, they certainly bear no resemblance. To trace the population from the north of Asia, not to mention the positive contradiction of facts, would be an unnecessary restriction of the subject, as the progeny of so cold a latitude is ever found rare, feeble, and unenterprising; while if we consider the proximity of Africa, and the many copper coloured nations which are there to be found, there will be little reason to hesitate concerning the progress of the Africans to Americans, as well as to New Holland. This resource alone remains; for it has already been seen that the language of the Malays, who extended themselves so far to the east of Asia, has no connection with that of the Americans.—Amidst the wonderful dreams of antiquaries it is surprising that none has attempted to prove that the Mexicans and Peruvians were descendants of the Carthaginians, who fled to the Hesperides in their abhorrence of the Roman yoke.

7 I

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

DIVISIONS. **T**HE territories of the United States are classed under three grand divisions, the northern, the middle, and the southern.

The Northern States are Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and the small province of Rhode Island. The district of Main in this quarter belongs to the province of Massachusetts Bay; and its eastern boundary, according to Morse, extends to a river called St. Croix, long. 67 deg. west from London: while on the north what is called Albany ridge, which seems an elongation of the Apalachian mountains, divides it from the British possessions; but these boundaries were contested by the British settlers in Nova Scotia. These northern states have been known, since the year 1614, by the special appellation of **NEW ENGLAND**, and are remarkable for the comparative smallness of the subdivisions, the five provinces being only of similar extent with New York, Pennsylvania, or Virginia.

The Middle States are New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Ohio, Michigan, and Indiana territory.

The Southern States are Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and the Mississippi territory.

These provinces are subdivided into counties, an enumeration of which rather belongs to topography.

BOUNDARIES.—The eastern boundary is the Atlantic Ocean, and the western the great river Mississippi, which is considered as a limit of Spanish America. On the north an ideal line, pervading the great lakes of Canada, is continued along the river St. Lawrence to lat. 45 deg. not far to the south of Montreal; when it passes due east, and follows a chain of mountains north-east, and afterwards diverges south-east to the river St. Croix, which falls into the bay of Fundi. On the south a line, merely arbitrary, about lat. 31 deg. divides the United

States from the Spanish dominions of West and East Florida.

EXTENT.—The greatest extent of the united territory is from east to west, in the northern part, where it exceeds 1300 British miles; and the line along the shores of the Atlantic nearly corresponds; but the breadth, from the Canadian lakes to the southern limit, is about 1000 British miles. The square acres have been computed at 640 millions; and those covered with water being supposed 51 millions, there will remain 589 millions of acres.

CLIMATE.—The climate of the United territories, as already mentioned, is chiefly remarkable for sudden transitions from heat to cold, and the contrary. The wind from the north-east is violently cold, as it passes a wide expanse of the frozen continent. In the plains on the east of the Apalachian chain the summer heats are immoderate; and in some places even ice will not preserve poultry or fish from putrefaction. Towards the mountains the climate is salutary even in the southern states, as is evinced by the bloom of the damsels in the back settlements of Virginia. In the northern states the winter is longer and more severe than in England, but the summer heat more intense. A north-east wind commonly attends rain, while on the west side of the Apalachian mountains a south-west has that effect. In Georgia the winter is very mild, snow being seldom seen, and the east wind is there the warmest.

This excessive heat of the plains must be regarded as one cause of that fatal pestilential malady called the yellow fever, which first appeared at Philadelphia in 1793, and has since too frequently repeated its ravages in various cities of the commonwealth. Several medical men have treated this subject with considerable care and ability, but do not seem to have examined whether any similar disease was before known on the continent, and what method of cure was practised. Alzate, in his fugitive remarks on the natural history of Mexico, has

mentioned an epidemical distemper, called in the Mexican language *matlazahuatl*; but at Vera Cruz, Carthagená, and other places, known by the name of the black vomit, which is the chief scourge of the kingdom of Mexico. In 1736 and 1737 it swept away above one third of the inhabitants of the capital; and in 1761 and 1762 it almost depopulated the kingdom. Alzate thinks that this disorder proceeds from the bile mixing with the blood, the patient often bleeding at the nose and mouth; and a relapse is extremely dangerous. He dissuades purgatives and bleeding, as when used for other disorders they superinduce the *matlazahuatl*, which in Mexico always begun among the Indians, and was chiefly confined to them. May not this disorder be as much allied with the yellow fever as the black and yellow jaundice? The Spanish physicians might at any rate be consulted, as they have long been accustomed to the American maladies; and it is hoped that this hint may not be unsubservient to the interests of humanity.

SEASONS.—The seasons in the United States generally correspond with those in Europe, but not with the equality to be expected on a continent; as, even during the summer heats, single days will occur which require the warmth of a fire. The latitude of Labrador corresponds with that of Stockholm, and that of Canada with France, but what a wide difference in the temperature! Even the estuary of the Delaware is generally frozen for six weeks every winter. Nor does the western coast of North America seem warmer than the eastern. The numerous forests, and wide expanses of fresh water, perhaps contribute to this comparative coldness of the climate, which may gradually yield to the progress of population and industry.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—The face of these extensive territories is not so minutely diversified as might have been expected, the features of nature being here on a larger and more uniform scale than in Europe. Nor are there any scenes of classical or historical reminiscence, which transport the mind to remote centuries, and impart a crowd of relative ideas. The abundance of timber, and the diversity of the foliage, contribute greatly to enrich the landscape; but it is here reputed a weed, and the planter seldom spares trees near his habitation, as the roots having no great room to spread or penetrate, they would be dangerous during a

violent wind. 'What a beautiful country, not disgraced by a single tree,' is an idea purely American. The landscape is less ennobled by lofty mountains than by rivers of great magnitude; and is frequently injured by the barren aspect of large fields, which have been exhausted by the culture of tobacco, and which scarcely produce a weed or a pile of grass. The northern provinces called New England are generally hilly, as they approach the skirts of the Apalachian chain, which has, by no unfit similitude, been called the spine of the United territory. The vales in these northern regions are thickly clothed with wood, and often pervaded by considerable rivers; and many romantic cascades are formed by rivulets falling from the rocks, while towards the shore the land is level and sandy. In Virginia, a central state, the Blue Mountains, and other ridges of the Apalachian, add great charms and variety to the prospect, which is further enlivened by many beautiful plants and birds, particularly the humming bird, sucking the honey of various flowers, and rapidly glancing in the sun its indescribable hues of green, purple, and gold. Here a plain from 150 to 200 miles in breadth, reaching from the mountains to the sea, is studded with the villas of rich proprietors, the ancient hospitable country gentlemen of the United States. Similar levels appear in the Carolinas and Georgia. Beyond the Apalachian ridges extends another rich plain of amazing size, pervaded by the muddy waves of the Mississippi, which does not appear to be table land, but on nearly the same level with the eastern plain. In Kentucky the surface is agreeably waved with gentle swells, reposing on a vast bed of limestone; and a track of about twenty miles along the Ohio is broken into small hills and narrow vales.

SOIL.—The soil, though of various descriptions, is generally fertile, often, on the east of the Blue Mountains, a rich brown loamy earth, sometimes a yellowish clay, which becomes more and more sandy towards the sea. Sometimes there are considerable marshes, and what are called salt meadows, and spots called barrens, which, even in the original forests, are found to be bare of trees for a considerable space. On the west of the Apalachian chain the soil is also generally excellent; and in Kentucky some spots are deemed too rich for wheat, but the product may amount to sixty bushels an acre: and about six feet below the surface there is

commonly a bed of limestone. The vales in the northern states are also very productive.

AGRICULTURE.—In agriculture the Americans are well skilled, and are eager to adopt the advantages of English experience. The late great president Washington was himself an excellent farmer; and it is computed that at least three parts in four of the inhabitants of the United States are employed in agriculture.—This free and vigorous yeomanry may well be regarded as the chief glory of any state; and commerce will import sufficient opulence to enable them to promote every possible improvement. Agriculture particularly flourishes in New England and Pennsylvania. The practice of land-jobbing, and other tendencies to monopoly, ought carefully to be repressed: such, however, is the progress of agriculture, that the states are enabled, almost yearly, to increase the exportation of grain and flour. In 1786 Pennsylvania exported 150,000 barrels of flour; in 1789 no less than 369,618 barrels.—Among the numerous products are wheat, rye, barley, buck wheat, oats, beans, peas, and maize, the last a native grain. In Virginia some rice is cultivated, and is found to succeed well on the banks of the Ohio. The German spelt, a valuable product, is also sown in Pennsylvania; and in several provinces hemp and flax are considerable objects of agriculture. The culture of turnips, and some other vegetables common on English farms, seems as yet to draw little attention; but many cultivated grasses are sown, and in Virginia there are lucern, cinquefoil, burnet, red, white, and yellow clover, &c. That invaluable plant the potatoe is a native of the country; and there is a sort called groundnuts, which some particularly relish. There are several kinds of melons and cucumbers. Hops are also cultivated: and it is almost unnecessary to add tobacco, a well known product of Virginia, which opulent province bears a considerable resemblance in culture and manners to our West Indian settlements. Orchards are favourite objects; and cyder is a common beverage in the northern and middle states. The excellent Newtown apple grows near New York. Peaches are greatly cultivated in Virginia, where the peach brandy is noted; and there are also excellent apricots and nectarines.

RIVERS.—The chief rivers of the United States have already been described in the brief general view of North America; but a few may

be here mentioned of a more confined course, and more particularly belonging to the United territory. That great western boundary the Mississippi, besides the celebrated Ohio, pervading the centre of the United territory from east to west, receives many other considerable streams, among which is the Illinois, or in the French mode Illinois, which waters extensive and fertile meadows. More northern streams, flowing into the Mississippi, are the Wisconsin, the Chipaway, and the river St. Croix. The noble stream of the Ohio receives from the north the Great and Little Miami, and the Wabash: from the south the Great Kennaway, the Kentucky, the Green River, and above all the Cumberland and the Tennessee; while the country on the west of Georgia is watered by several streams which join the gulf of Mexico.

Among the numerous rivers which flow, on the east, into the Atlantic, may be mentioned the liminary stream of St. Croix, the Penabscot, the Kennebec, the Saco, the Merimac, the Connecticut, a long and distinguished stream, which gives name to the province, but which yields in length and grandeur to the Hudson river, which rising from several lakes in the northern parts of New York, flows into the ocean near the flourishing city of that name. The river Delaware, which washes Philadelphia, being joined by numerous streams, is more remarkable for its width than the length of its course. The Susquehanna is distinguished by both these attributes, and after a long and circuitous progress forms the chief contributory stream to the bay of Chesapeake; which also receives the Patomak and the Fluvanna, or James River. The Patomak is not only distinguished as the seat of the new capital, but for its irruption through the Blue Ridge of the Apalachian Mountains, being first joined by the Shenandoa, a considerable river from the south. The range, however, consists of broken rocks, and the scene yields greatly in sublimity to the passage of the Lauricocha or false Maranon, through the Andes, worn into perpendicular walls of stupendous height and length. Further to the south the chief rivers flow west into the Ohio. But the Black water and Staunton join the Roanok inlet: and Pamlico Sound receives a river of the same name. That of Cape Fear, the Pedee, the Santee, the Savannah, and the Altamaha of Georgia, close the list of the chief rivers of the United States.

LAKES.—Besides the great lakes which form

the northern boundary, and which have been already mentioned in the general description of North America, there are some considerable lakes in the northern parts of the United territory. Those on the west have been little explored. The small lakes called Cedar, Little Winnipeg, and Leech, supply the sources of the Mississippi. On the east the most important lake is that of Champlain, rather resembling a wide river, which flows into that of St. Lawrence, and supplies an easy communication with Canada. The Champlain is the boundary between the states of New York and Vermont, being in length about 75 geographical miles, while the breadth seldom exceeds four or five; and it terminates in the broad river called Chambly or Richlieu, which falls within the limits of Canada. Lake George, at the southern extremity of Champlain, approaches within a few miles of the Hudson river, so that a canal might be opened at no great expence. Besides many small lakes south-west of the Champlain, there are several other lakes in the same direction, and also in the province of New York, as the Oneida, the Cayuga, and Sennaka.

MOUNTAINS.—The chief mountains have been likewise described in the general view of North America. The White and Green Mountains in the northern provinces, and the Land's Height, which bounds the district of Main, may be regarded as elongations of the Apalachian chain, to which also belong the Savage and Bald Mountains, and the Allegany, so called from another name of the river Ohio, (sometimes extended to the whole Apalachian,) with many other local denominations, the Blue Mountains being the most general term for the exterior ridge towards the ocean.

FORESTS.—Aboriginal forests are so numerous throughout the United territory, that none seem to be particularly distinguished. There does not appear to exist, on the whole continent of America, any of those sandy deserts which are so remarkable in Asia and Afric. There is, on the contrary, an exuberance of water even in the most torrid regions; which might be added as a proof that the theory that this continent has more recently emerged. Even the volcanoes in South America often pour down torrents of water and mud, and no where occur the sandy ruins of plains, after the fertile soil has been totally lost, or the rocky skeletons of ancient mountains. The large tract in the eastern part

of Virginia and North Carolina, called the Dismal Swamp, occupies about 150,000 acres; but it is entirely covered with trees, juniper and cypress on the more moist parts, and on the drier white and red oaks, and a variety of pines. These trees attain a prodigious size; and among them there is often thick brushwood, so as to render the swamp impervious, while other forests in North America are commonly free from underwood. Cane reeds, and tall rich grass, soon fatten the cattle of the vicinity, which are taught to return to the farms of their own accord. In this swampy forest bears, wolves, deer, and other wild animals abound; and stories are told of children having been lost, who have been seen, after many years, in a wild state of nature. Some parts are so dry as to bear a horse, while some are overflowed, and others so miry that a man would sink up to the neck. A canal has been led through it; and even in the dry parts water of the colour of brandy, as is supposed from the roots of the junipers, gushed in at the depth of three feet. In the northern part the timber supplies an article of trade, while in the southern rice is found to prosper; and in the neighbourhood none of these diseases are known which haunt other marshy situations.

SWAMPS.—Georgia presents a singular marsh, or in the wet season a lake, called Ekansanoko, by others Oquafenoga, in the south-east extremity of the province. This marshy lake is about 300 miles in circumference, and contains several large and fertile isles, one of which is represented by the Creek Indians as a kind of paradise, inhabited by a peculiar race, whose women are incomparably beautiful, and are called by them daughters of the sun. These islanders are said to be a remnant of an ancient tribe, nearly exterminated by the Creeks. Such events may not have been uncommon among savage tribes; and the more industrious people who erected the noted forts may have been passing, like the Mexicans, to a comparative state of civilization, when an unhappy defeat, by more savage tribes, extinguished their name and power. That the natives have no memory of such transactions is not matter of wonder, for their traditions can scarcely exceed a century or two at the utmost.

BOTANY.—A country that experiences on the one frontier the severity of the Canadian winters, and on the other basks in the full ra-

diance of the West Indian summers, may naturally be expected to contain no small variety of native plants. So numerous and important indeed are they, as to render it impossible in a work not devoted particularly to the subject to notice them as they deserve; we must therefore be contented with the selection of such alone as, from their utility and beauty, have the strongest claim to our attention.

The botany of these states, including the Floridas, or, in other words, of the whole region extending eastward from the Mississippi to the ocean, and southward from the river St. Lawrence with its lakes to the gulf of Mexico, may be divided into those vegetables which are common to the whole country, and those that occupy only particular parts.

The most generally diffused species among the timber trees are the willow-leaved oak growing in the swamps; the chesnut oak, which in the southern states attains an enormous size, and is almost as valuable for its sweet farinaceous acorns as for its wood; the white oak; the red and the black. Next to these in rank are two kinds of walnut, the black, and the white or hickory, esteemed for its oily nuts. The chesnut and beech of Europe are also found abundantly in the American forests. The tulip tree and sassafras laurel, more impatient of cold than the preceding, appear as shrubs on the Canadian borders, rise into trees in the midland states, and on the warm banks of the Altamaha attain the full perfection of stateliness and beauty. The sugar maple, on the contrary, is seen only on the northern sides of the hills in the southern states, and increases both in size and frequency in the more bracing climate of the New England provinces. The sweet gum tree, the iron wood, the nettle tree, the American elm, the black poplar, and the taccamahacca, appear in every state of the Union wherever the soil is suitable, without being much affected by variety of climate.—The light sandy tracts, both wet and dry, are principally inhabited by the important and useful family of pines: of these the chief species are the Pennsylvanian fir, the common and the hemlock spruce fir; the black, the white, and the Weymouth pine; and the larch: nearly allied to which are the arbor vitæ, and the juniperus virginiana, the red cedar of America. The smaller trees and shrubs that are dispersed in all parts of the United States, among a mul-

titude of others, consist of the following; the fringe tree, the red maple, the sumach and poison oak, the red mulberry, the persimmon plum, and robinia pseudacacia, and the triple-thorned acacia.

Such of the common herbaceous plants and low shrubs as are best known to the generality of readers from their introduction into the gardens of Great Britain are the collinsonia, used by the Indians against the bite of the rattlesnake, several gay species of phlox, the thorn-apple, the Pennsylvanian lily and golden mar-tagon, the biennial oenothera, with many species of aster, monarda, and rudbeckia.

The mountainous ridges are not sufficiently high to be rich in alpine plants; their climate, however, is sensibly cooler than that of the plains, on which account those of the south are inhabited by the vegetables of Pennsylvania and the northern states, while the highlands of these abound in the plants of Canada.

But the glories of the American flora are principally confined to Virginia and the southern states; it is here that the unfading verdure of the wide savannas, the solemn magnificence of the primeval forests, and the wild exuberance of the steaming swamps, offer to the astonished admiration of the botanist every thing that by colour, by fragrance, and by form, can delight the senses and fix the attention.

Among the vegetables that inhabit the low shores of the Floridas, Georgia, and South Carolina, may be distinguished the mangrove tree, the only shrubby plant that can flourish in salt water, the fragrant and snowy-flowered pancratium of Carolina, and the splendid lobelia cardinalis.

The low ridges of calcareous soil running parallel with the rivers, and rising from the level savannas into extensive lawns and swelling hills, are generally covered with open or entangled woods, except where they have been converted into tillage by the industry of the inhabitants. In these rich tracts grow the lofty palmetto, the evergreen oak, the sweet bay, the benzoe laurel, the common laurel, the wide shading broom pine, and the red cedar. The strait silvery columns of the papaw fig, rising to the height of twenty feet, and crowned by a canopy of broad sinuated leaves, form a striking feature in this delicious scenery; while the golden fruit and fragrant blossoms of the orange, here realize the ancient traditions of the groves of the Hea-

perides. Superior, however, to all these is the towering magnificence of the great magnolia: in this rich marley soil it rises above a hundred feet, with a perfectly erect trunk, supporting a shady conical head of dark green foliage: from the centre of the coronets of leaves that terminate the branches expands a large rose-shaped blossom of pure white, which is succeeded by a crimson one, containing the seeds of a beautiful coral red colour, and these falling from their cells remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel by a silky thread, six inches or more in length, so that whether in this state or in blossom it is second to none for grandeur and beauty.

The level plains by the sides of rivers, and therefore generally in a flooded state during the whole rainy season, are called savannas. The trees that grow upon them are of the aquatic kind, such as magnolia glauca, or beaver tree, American olive, and gordonia lausianthus, silvered over with fragrant blossoms: these are generally either single, or grouped together into small open groves, while the larger part of the meadow is overgrown with long succulent herbage, intermixed with shrubs and plants; the candleberry myrtle, with numerous species of azaleas, kalmias, andromedas, and rhododendrons, arranged by the hand of nature into thickets, and shrubberies entwined and over-arched by the crimson granadilla, or the fantastic clitoria, here display their inimitable beauties in full luxuriance. The sides of the pools and the shallow plashe are adorned by the bright cærulean flowers of the ixia, the golden blossoms of the canna lutea, and the rosy tufts of the hydrangia, while the edges of the groves, and the dubious boundaries of the savannas, rising imperceptibly towards the forests, are fringed by innumerable gay varieties of the phlox, by the shrinking sensitive plant, the irritable dionæa, the glowing amaryllis atamasco, and the impenetrable ranks of the royal palmetto.

The swamps are at all times, even in the height of summer, for the most part under water, and are distinguished from the rest of the country by the crowded stems of the cane, the light foliage of the tupelo tree, the taccamahacca, the fringe tree, and the white cedar; this last is perhaps the most picturesque tree in all America: four or five enormous buttresses or rude pillars rise from the ground, and unite in a kind of arch at the height of about seven feet, and

from this centre there springs a strait column eighty or ninety feet high, without a branch: it then divides into a flat umbrella-shaped top, covered with finely divided leaves of the most delicate green. This platform is the secure abode of the eagle and the crane; and the oily seeds contained in its cones are the favourite repast of the parroquets that are constantly fluttering around.

Hundreds more of interesting plants yet remain, and we might go on to describe with unabated pleasure the profusion of various coloured lupines and dwarf palmettos that relieve the dusky hue of the pine forests in which they live; the wild vines, the gourds, the bignonias, and other climbers that display to the sun their fruits and glowing blossoms above the summits of the tallest trees; we might describe the tent-like shade of the plantanus, the regal splendour of the crimson-flowered horse-chesnut, and the humbler, less obtrusive, yet not less exquisite beauties of the meadia, the spigelia, and gaura, but these our limits will not admit; it is enough for the present purpose to have sketched some of the characteristic features in the botany of a country, the most accessible of all the warmer climates to the investigation of European science.

ZOOLOGY.—The domestic zoology of the United States nearly corresponds with that of the parent country, with some few shades of difference in size and colour. Among the larger wild animals may be mentioned the bison, large herds of which used to be seen near the Mississippi, and they were once very numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania. The musk bull and cow only appear in the more western regions, beyond the Mississippi. Among the animals now lost are classed the mammoth, whose enormous bones are particularly found near the salt springs upon the Ohio; and teeth of the hippopotamus are said to have been dug up in Long Island: but the labours of a late French naturalist have evinced that such remains often belong to animals long since extirpated, and of which he has traced more than twenty kinds. The mammoth of America, though armed with tusks of ivory, has been supposed to be even five or six times larger than the elephant; but the bones are probably the same with those of the supposed elephant found in Siberia. The moose deer are become extremely rare, and will probably in no long time be utterly extirpated, as the wolf and

boar have been in Britain. The black moose deer are said to have been sometimes twelve feet in height, while the species called the grey seldom exceed the height of a horse. Both have large palmated horns, weighing thirty or forty pounds. Mr. Pennant mentions a pair that weighed fifty-six pounds, the length being thirty-two inches. The moose deer is only a large species of the elk, and is found in the northern parts of the United States; while the rein deer inhabits the northern regions of British America. The American stag rather exceeds the European in size, and is seen in great numbers feeding in the rich savannas of the Missouri and Mississippi, where there are also herds of that kind called the Virginian deer.

In the northern states are two kinds of bears, both black; but that carnivorous animal called the ranging bear is found in all the states, as is the wolf. Several kinds of foxes are also seen: and the wolverine seems a kind of bear. The animal most dreaded is the catamount, or cat of the mountains, found in the northern and middle states, and is probably the same with the *puma* of Pennant, which he says is sometimes in North America called the panther. One killed in New Hampshire was six feet in length, and the tail three; but the length of the leg did not exceed twelve inches. The *cougar* is about five feet in length, and in the southern states is called the tiger: but it is well known that the ferocious animals of the new continent are totally different from those of the old, there being neither lions, tigers, leopards, nor panthers, in the whole extent of America. A German missionary, who resided twenty-two years in Paraguay, describes the tiger of that country as marked with black spots, sometimes on a whitish, sometimes on a yellowish ground; and says that as the lions of Africa far exceed those of Paraguay, so the African tigers greatly yield in size to the American; which may be just, as the royal tiger seems peculiar to Asia. But he adds that he has seen the skin of a tiger three ells and two inches in length, or equal to that of a large ox. This animal easily carries off a horse or an ox; and seems to exceed in size any American beast of prey admitted in the system of Buffon, whose fondness for theories is often to be lamented; and his *jaguar*, or American tiger, seems only a diminutive species.

The lynx, the ocelot, and the margay, are smaller beasts of prey, of the cat kind. These

and many other animals supply furs. The beaver is well known from the fur, and the singular formation of his cabin, built in ponds for the sake of security; but he seems to feed on the twigs of trees, and not on fish, as commonly supposed. This industrious animal is found in all the states, and is somewhat imitated by the musk rat, which likewise builds his hut in shallow streams. Some kinds of monkies are said to be found in the southern states. The morse or sea cow, and the seal, used to frequent the northern shores; and the manati, common in South America, is said sometimes to appear on the southern coasts: this animal, which has fore feet like hands, and a tail like a fish, while the breasts of the female resemble those of a woman, seems to be the mermaid of fable.

Among the birds there are many kinds of eagles, vultures, owls, and numerous sorts called by European names, though generally different in the eye of the naturalist. The bird called a turkey is peculiar to America, and abounds in the north. They were brought from Mexico to Spain, and from Spain to England about 152.; the African poultry, or *meleagrides*, of more ancient authors, being Guinea fowls. There are also birds which resemble the partridge, ptarmigan, and quail, of Europe.—Virginia abounds with beautiful birds, among which is the humming bird, as already mentioned, while the wakon resembles the bird of paradise: and it may be conceived that vast varieties of aquatic birds crowd the numerous lakes and rivers, the largest being the wild swan, which sometimes weighs thirty-six pounds.—Some of the frogs are of remarkable size; and the tortoise, or turtle, supplies a delicious food, while the alligator is not unknown in the southern rivers. Of serpents Mr. Morse enumerates near forty kinds found in the United territories, Virginia, in particular, producing great numbers. The rattlesnake is the largest, being from four to six feet in length, and is one of the most dreaded. Among the fish are most of those which are esteemed in Europe; and among those that are peculiar may be mentioned that large kind of white trout found in the lakes.

MINERALOGY.—The mineralogy of the United States will not supply an extensive theme, as few substances are found, except those which are indeed the most precious to industry, iron and coal. In the district of Maine the founderies are supplied with bog iron

ore; and there is said to be a kind of stone which yields copperas, or vitriol, and sulphur. Iron ore is found in great abundance in Massachusetts, where there are considerable manufactures. Copper ore also appears in that province with black lead, aluminous slate; and asbestos is said to be found in a quarry of limestone. In Rhode Island there are mines of iron and copper; and at Diamond Hill a variety of curious stones. On the banks of the Connecticut is a lead mine, but too expensive to work; and zinc is also found, with tales, and crystals of various colours. At Philipsburg in New York is a silver mine; and lead, zinc, and manganese, with copper and coal. Gypsum, talc, asbestos, also occur in that extensive province. In New Jersey a rich copper mine was long wrought, pretended to have been discovered by a flame visible in the night, like one of the gold mines in Hungary. The middle provinces seem only to produce iron ore; but Virginia is celebrated for various minerals. A lump of gold ore was found near the falls of the river Kapahanoc, probably rolled down from its source, or that of some tributary rivulet. There are lead mines which yield from fifty to eighty pounds from one hundred of ore: copper and black lead are also found; and there is abundance of excellent coal on both sides of James River, said to have been discovered by a boy in pursuit of cray fish. Coal also abounds towards the Mississippi and Ohio; and at Pittsburg is of superior quality: but this valuable mineral is chiefly worked in Virginia, where the beds seem very extensive. Limestone is rare on the east of the Blue ridge; but there is a vein of marble which crosses James River. Amethysts, or violet-coloured crystals, are also found in Virginia; and it is probable that the emerald mentioned by Mr. Jefferson was only a green crystal. North Carolina is crossed by a long ridge of limestone, in a south-westerly direction, but no minerals seem to have been discovered. In the territory south of the Ohio, what is called stone-coal is found in the Cumberland Mountains, or great Laurel ridge, (supposed by some to be of great height,) and there are salt springs near the upper branches of the Tennessee. In South Carolina there are said to be appearances of silver and lead, with abundance of iron ore, and quarries of free-stone; but the coarse diamonds are probably mere crystals of quartz. Georgia, the most southern state, is of a rich soil; but besides a bank of oyster

shells, ninety miles from the sea, there seems no mineralogic discovery.

MINERAL WATERS.—There are several mineral waters, of various virtues, in different provinces of the United States, but none of distinguished eminence like Bath, or Aix-la-Chapelle. In the province of Vermont, or the Green Mountain, there is a remarkable sulphureous spring, which dries up in two or three years, and bursts out in another place. There are several mineral springs in Massachusetts, but little frequented, and there is another at Stafford in Connecticut. Those of Saratoga, in the province of New York, are remarkably copious, and surrounded with singular petrifications.—They are considerably frequented, as well as those of New Lebanon in the same country. New Jersey boasts of some chalybeate waters; and near Isle Creek in Pennsylvania on the river Allegany, or Ohio, there is a spring which yields petroleum, said to be useful in rheumatic complaints. Two warm springs occur in Virginia, one of them 112 deg. These are called the springs of Augusta; but others more frequented are near the river Potomak. A bituminous spring was discovered on the estate of General Washington, which easily takes fire, and continues burning for some time. The salt springs in Kentucky also deserve mention; and there are others in the province of Tennessee. In Georgia, near the town of Washington, there is a remarkable spring rising from a hollow tree, which is encrusted with matter probably calcareous.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—The natural curiosities of the United States are numerous, and have been investigated with that laudable attention, which has been particularly directed by the English towards such interesting appearances. Besides the irruption of the river Potomak through the Blue Mountains, and other objects already mentioned, the principal uncommon features of nature shall be briefly indicated from Mr. Morse's American Geography. In Vermont there is a remarkable impendent ledge of rocks, about two hundred feet high, on the west bank of the river Connecticut; and in the same province is a curious stalactitic cave, in which, after a descent of 104 feet, there opens a spacious room about 20 feet in breadth, and 100 in length, with a circular hall at the further end, at the bottom of which boils up a deep spring of clear water. Rattlesnake Hill, in

New Hampshire, presents a stalactitic cave; and near Durham is a rock so poised on another, as to move with one finger; a natural remain of a ruined hill, though in England it would be called druidical. The rivulet in Massachusetts, called Hudson's Brook, has excavated in a fantastic manner a large rock of white marble.—The falls of the river Powow, in the same province, are not only curious in themselves, but present many grotesque mills, and other monuments of industry; and a similar appearance occurs on the river Pautukit in Rhode Island. In Connecticut is a cave which was for some time the retreat of Whaley and Goffe, two of the Judges of Charles I.; and in the town of Pomfret is another, rendered remarkable by a humorous adventure of General Putnam.

In the province of New York a rivulet runs under a hill about seventy yards in diameter, forming a beautiful arch in the rock; and there is a stalactitic cave in which was found the petrified skeleton of a large snake. The falls of the Mohawk river, called Cohoz, are more remarkable for the width of the stream, than from the height of the descent. There is a beautiful cascade in Fayette county, Pennsylvania, over a semicircular rock of marble. In Pennsylvania there are also some remarkable caves, one of which resembles a church with pillars and monuments. In the territory on the north-west of the Ohio, the savannas, or rich plains, extend for thirty or forty miles without any tree; they are crowded with deer, wild cattle, and turkies, and often visited by bears and wolves; but this district is chiefly remarkable for a number of old forts, of an oblong form, with an adjoining tumulus or tomb. As the Mexicans have a tradition that they passed from the north, these forts may perhaps be remains of their first residence, or of some nation which they subdued. In the western part of Maryland there are said to be some remarkable caves: and others occur in Virginia, particularly that called Madison's cave, on the north-west side of the Blue ridge, extending about 300 feet into the solid limestone. The blowing cave emits a strong current of air, particularly in frosty weather. The natural bridge is a sublime and striking curiosity, being a rock covered with soil and trees, across a chasm, appearing to have been opened in the course of ages by a brook, which now runs between two and three hundred feet beneath. The breadth of this bridge is about

sixty feet; and the thickness of the mass about forty. The rock is limestone, which easily wastes by the attrition of water, whence the number of caverns in that kind of rock, while in the granitic, or argillaceous they rarely occur. In Kentucky the banks of the river so called, and of Dick's River, are sometimes four hundred feet in height of limestone, or white marble; and there are said to be caverns of some miles in length, thus rivalling the celebrated cave in Carinthia. The territory on the south of the Ohio (Tennessee) presents a remarkable ledge of rocks in the Cumberland Mountains, about thirty miles in length, and two hundred feet thick, with a perpendicular face to the south-east. The *whirl* is more grand than the irruption of the Patomak through the Blue ridge: the Tennessee, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, contracts to one hundred yards, and forces its way through this outer ridge of the Apalachian, forming a whirlpool by striking against a large rock. In Georgia the chief curiosity is a large bank of oyster shells, ninety miles from the sea, to which it runs nearly parallel: if the river Savannah never passed in that direction, it is probable that the land has gained so far on the ocean. So late as the year 1771 there was an excellent harbour, which might receive one hundred ships in a good depth of water, at Cape Lookout, North Carolina. It is now entirely filled up, and is solid ground.

Civil Geography.

POPULATION.—The population of these extensive territories was formerly estimated, by order of congress, in 1790, and found to be 3,930,000, exclusive of the inhabitants north-west of the Ohio, supposed to be 20,000. It is inferred that the population is doubled every twenty years. The number of slaves in 1790 was 697,697, and has probably been little increased, as many emancipations have taken place, and the slave trade, after being long discountenanced, is abolished. By a census taken in 1810, the population amounted to 7,238,421. The present population, notwithstanding the late war, and the suspension of commercial transactions, will, therefore, not be overrated at eight millions.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—The manners and customs of the United States may be conceived

to differ little from those of their British ancestors, except in a few local particularities, to be learned from the common books of travels, which sometimes explain even the little defects visible in particular states. Travellers have observed, even in Philadelphia, a want of urbanity, and a spirit of coldness and reserve, which renders society melancholy. In general the common people shew their independent spirit by surliness of behaviour, and a contempt of that intercourse of trifling civilities, which render life amiable. Cased in self-importance, they seem to think that a republican is only another name for an armadillo. Various religious doctrines, some of them of very recent invention, seem to conspire with the love of money, or, in other words, constant care, to throw an additional gloom over the character. One religious sect indeed has adopted dancing as a mode of worship; but a Frenchman would think it the dance of St. Vitus, and would pronounce their mirth to be the height of melancholy. The gay festivals of the ancient republicans, and the cheerful and happy manners of the Swiss, seem equally unknown: their public parties are, in general, unsocial and gloomy. Allowance, however, ought to be made for the peculiar character of their constitution, which allows them to riot in freedom of sentiment and almost licentiousness of debate. *The scurrility of the press* is deplored even by themselves; and is, unfortunately, too much in the hands of *European traitors*, who have fled to America to escape the punishment due to their crimes. On political subjects the Americans are headstrong and violent: like us, they are noisy and blustering in their complaints against other nations. Among themselves, they are jealous of all encroachments on their liberties, and tenacious of their political opinions even to a fault: but view them in private life; in their hours of relaxation, in the circle of friendship, and it will be found that they do not merit all the opprobrium that has been cast upon their character.

The higher and middling classes of the Americans, who reside chiefly in the great towns or their neighbourhood, live, generally speaking, in a more luxurious manner than the same description of people in England. Not that their tables are more sumptuously furnished than ours; but that their ordinary meals consist of a greater variety of articles, many of which from too frequent use may, perhaps, become pernicious

to the constitution. The constant use of segars by the young men, even from an early age, may also tend to impair the constitution, and create a stimulus beyond that which nature requires, or is capable of supporting. Their dread of the yellow fever has induced a more frequent use of tobacco of late years; but it is now grown into a habit that will not be easily abandoned. The other classes of the community, who reside in the interior and back parts of the country, are often obliged to live upon salt provisions the greatest part of the year, and sometimes on very scanty fare; besides which, they generally dwell in miserable log huts, incapable of defending them effectually from the severity of the weather. Those who have the means of living better are great eaters of animal food, which is introduced at every meal; together with a variety of hot cakes, and a profusion of butter: all which may more or less tend to the introduction of bilious disorders, and perhaps lay the foundation of those diseases which prove fatal in hot climates. The effects of a luxurious or meagre diet are equally injurious to the constitution, and, together with the sudden and violent changes of the climate, may create a series of nervous complaints, consumptions, and debility, which in the states bordering on the Atlantic carry off at least one third of the inhabitants in the prime of life.

The society of the towns consists of three distinct classes. The first is composed of the constituted authorities and government officers; divines, lawyers, and physicians of eminence; the principal merchants and people of independent property. The second comprises the small merchants, retail dealers, clerks, subordinate officers of the government, and members of the three professions. The third consists of the inferior orders of the people. The first of these associate together in a style of elegance and splendour little inferior to Europeans. Their houses are furnished with every thing that is useful, agreeable, or ornamental; and many of them are fitted up in the tasteful magnificence of modern style. The dress of the gentlemen is plain, elegant, and fashionable, and corresponds in every respect with the English costume. The ladies in general seem more partial to the light, various, and dashing drapery of the Parisian belles, than to the elegant and becoming attire of our London beauties, who improve upon the French fashions. But there are many

who prefer the English costume, or at least a medium between that and the French.

Fair complexions, regular features, and fine forms, seem to be the prevailing characteristics of the American fair sex. They do not, however, enjoy their beauty for so long a period as Englishwomen, neither do they possess the blooming countenance and rosy tinge of health so predominant among our fair countrywomen, whose charms never stand in need of cosmetics. The beauty of the American women partakes more of the *lily* than the *rose*; though the soft glow of the latter is sometimes to be met with. Their climate, however, is not so favourable to beauty as that of England, in consequence of the excessive heat and violent changes of the weather peculiar to America.

Most travellers who have visited America have charged the ladies of the United States universally with having bad teeth. The accusation is certainly very erroneous when applied to the whole of the fair sex, and to them alone. That the inhabitants of the States are often subject to a premature loss of teeth is allowed by themselves; and the cause has even been discussed in the papers read before the American Philosophical Society; but it does not particularly attach to the females, who are much more exempt from that misfortune than the men.

The females of the New England states are conspicuous for their domestic virtues. Every thing in their houses has an air of cleanliness, order, and economy; this displays the female character to the greatest advantage. The young women are really handsome. They have almost all fair complexions, often tinged with the rosy bloom of health. They have generally good, and sometimes excellent teeth. Their light hair is tastefully turned up behind, in the modern style, and fastened with a comb. Their dress is neat, simple, and genteel; usually consisting of a printed cotton jacket, with long sleeves, a petticoat of the same, with a coloured cotton apron, or pincloth without sleeves, tied tight, and covering the lower part of the bosom. This seems to be the prevailing dress in the country places. Their manners are easy, affable, and polite, and free from all uncouth rusticity: indeed, they appear to be as polished and well bred as the ladies in the cities, although they may not possess their highly finished education. Yet in the well settled parts of New England the children do not want for plain and useful

instruction; and the girls, especially, are early initiated in the principles of domestic order and economy.

Dancing is an amusement that the ladies are passionately fond of; and many of them are well accomplished in music and drawing, and practise them with considerable success; but they do not excel in those acquirements, as they do in dancing. Among the young men these accomplishments are but little cultivated.

Marriages are conducted in the most splendid style, and form an important part of the winter's entertainments. For some years it was the fashion to keep them only among a select circle of friends; but of late the opulent parents of the new-married lady have thrown open their doors, and invited the town to partake of their felicity. The young couple, attended by their nearest connexions and friends, are married at home in a magnificent style; and if the parties are episcopalians, the bishop is always procured, if possible; as his presence gives a greater zest to the nuptials. For three days after the marriage ceremony, the new-married couple see company in great state, and every genteel person who can procure an introduction may pay his respects to the bride and bridegroom. It is a sort of levee; and the visitors, after their introduction, partake of a cup of coffee or other refreshment, and walk away. Sometimes the night concludes with a concert and ball, or cards, among those friends and acquaintance who are invited to remain.

Private quarrels frequently disgrace the public prints: challenges are sent; and, if refused, the parties are posted as '*prevaricating poltroons and cowards*.' 'During my short stay of six months in Carolina,' says a late traveller, 'there were upwards of *fourteen* duels fought which came to my knowledge, and *not one* of them in which the parties were not either *killed or wounded*. Since my departure, I heard of a duel having been fought with *rifles* at only *seven* paces distance, in which two young men, whose families were of the highest respectability, were *both killed* on the spot. Such acts of desperation would lead one to suspect that the Americans were a blood-thirsty people; for they might satisfy their false honour at a greater distance from each other, and with less determinate marks of revenge. Duels are frequent and disgraceful enough in England; but they are far exceeded in the United States, where

young men are in the habit of *training* themselves up as duellists.

In the eastern and southern states the young men are particularly expert at rifle-shooting; and articles, instead of being put up at vendue, are often shot for, with rifles, at a small price each shot, which is a more useful and honourable mode than the practice of raffling adopted in the lower country. This method of disposing of goods is worthy of imitation in England, and would soon render the people excellent marksmen.

There is a considerable difference between the character of the inhabitants of the northern and the southern states. The merchants in the northern parts of the union are undoubtedly the wealthiest and most enlightened class of Americans. In the southern states the planters are generally considered as the wealthiest people, which may be true with respect to their landed property and slaves: but they are not the most moneyed people; for, except upon their annual crops of rice and cotton, which produce various incomes from 6,000 to 50,000 dollars, they seldom can command a dollar in cash, and are besides continually in debt.

In the town of Charlestown, where they for the most part have handsome houses, they live for the time being like princes: and those strangers who visit the city at that period, and have the means of being introduced at their houses, are sure to meet a hearty welcome.—Every article that the market can supply is to be found at their festive board. The wine flows in abundance, and nothing affords them greater satisfaction than to see their guests *drop gradually under the table* after dinner. Hospitality is indeed their characteristic as long as the cash lasts: but when that is gone they retire to their plantations. There they are obliged to dispense with the luxuries, and often with the comforts, which they enjoyed in town.

This mode of living among the planters, of which the brilliant side only is exposed to public view, is followed more or less by most of the gentry in Charlestown, and has led strangers to give them the character of a free, affable, and generous people. Others, however, who have had better opportunities of judging of their real character, charge them with ostentation, and a haughty supercilious behaviour. These opposite qualities, no doubt, attach individually to many of the inhabitants, and most perhaps to

the planters, who, it is natural to suppose, consider themselves in a more elevated and independent situation than the merchants who dispose of their produce, or the traders who furnish them with the necessities of life. Hence they may be somewhat tinctured with that pride and haughtiness with which they are charged. At the same time their free and extravagant style of living, their open and friendly reception of strangers and visitors at their table, have no doubt won the hearts of those who have partaken of their good cheer, and established that excellent character which is said to be predominant among them.

Unlike the farmer and merchant of the northern states, who are *themselves* indefatigably employed from morning to night, the Carolinian lolls at his ease under the shady piazza before his house, *smoking segars* and drinking *sango-ree*; while his numerous slaves and overseers are cultivating a rice swamp or cotton field with the sweat of their brow, the produce of which is to furnish their luxurious master with the means of figuring away for a few months in the city, or an excursion to the northward.—Property thus easily acquired is as readily squandered away.

Drinking is a vice too common in America. The following is a specimen of Virginian *dram drinking*. A *gum-tickler* is a gill of spirits, generally rum, taken fasting. A *phlegm-cutter* is a double dose just before breakfast. An *antifogmatic* is a similar dram before dinner. A *gall-breaker* is about half a pint of ardent spirits. When they enquire how such-a-one does, the answer is, 'Oh, he is only drinking *gum-ticklers*!' If he is drinking *phlegm-cutters*, or *antifogmatics*, the case is not so good, and he is soon expected to get to *gall-breakers*; but if he is drinking the *latter*, they consider him as a lost sheep,—say it is all over with him,—and pity his desperate case. Indeed, a man seldom lives above six months after he has commenced the *gall-breaking* dram! Rum, brandy, or *gin sling*, is a common beverage for travellers throughout the states; and the stage-coachmen in the course of a journey, take 'a *special good quantity of it*.' Sometimes it consists only of the liquor and water, sweetened with sugar, and drank cold; but in general it is made of milk, with ginger or nutmeg grated into it.

The mode of fighting amongst the inhabitants of the southern states is of the most barbarous

and detestable description. *Gouging, kicking, and biting*, are allowed in most of their battles; and the combatants pride themselves upon the dexterity with which they can *pluck out an eye, bite off a nose, or break a jaw with a kick of their foot*. Gouging is performed by twisting the fore finger in a lock of hair, near the temple, and turning the eye out of the socket with the thumb nail, which is suffered to grow long for that purpose.

Musical concerts are more frequented than the theatre; and in general there is little taste for those amusements which are connected with the arts and sciences. In some provinces gaming is said to be too prevalent: but the deepest game consists in selling unsettled lands at advanced prices: a species of stock-jobbing, which, like a Mississippi scheme, stimulates the avarice of many. Party-spirit runs very high amongst the Americans, and tends much to destroy the comforts of society, and impair the moral feelings. When population, manufactures, and riches shall have increased, the American character will, however, be ameliorated, and the rudeness and licentiousness so much complained of by travellers will be transformed into firmness and genuine politeness.

LANGUAGE.—On the termination of the war with England the rancour of a few proposed the adoption of a new language; and a wit recommended the Hebrew. The English, however, remains; but within these ten years has become more and more corrupt, so that a British reader sometimes cannot divine the meaning of an American phrase. Hence it may be foreseen that, in the course of a century or two, the North American will have become an entirely distinct dialect, perhaps as different as the Portuguese from the Spanish.

LITERATURE.—The books published in British America were chiefly of a religious kind; and those of Mather, printed in the end of the 17th century, at Boston, concerning some supposed witches in that city, are remembered on account of their fanatic cruelty. But before the emancipation Franklin had become a distinguished name in letters; and many authors of considerable merit have since arisen in the United States. Literary academies publish their transactions; while magazines and newspapers contribute to the popular diffusion of useful knowledge. Education seems also to attract more and more attention, and to be con-

ducted in numerous seminaries with the most laudable care. In the northern provinces, called New England, schools are established in almost every township. Even the Catholics have a college in Maryland.

UNIVERSITIES.—In New York a college was founded, by an act of the British parliament, 1754, which is now called Columbia College, and is said to be frequented by more than one hundred students. Nassau Hall was founded at Prince Town, in New Jersey, the students being estimated at eighty. In 1782 another foundation, called Washington College, arose at Chestertown in Maryland. Even in Tennessee there is a society for promoting useful knowledge, which is far more laudable than those established in some countries for promoting useless knowledge; and there is also an academy, with many grammar schools. Yale College, in Connecticut, was founded in 1717, and rebuilt in 1750; maintaining about 130 students. In Pennsylvania there are many literary societies, particularly the American Philosophical Society, formed in 1769; and which has published in 1771 and 1786 two volumes of their transactions. The University of Pennsylvania was founded at Philadelphia during the war; and being since united with the college, has become a respectable seat of learning. In this province there are also Dickenson College, and Franklin College. Harvard University, in the province of Massachusetts, was founded in 1638, and is generally regarded as the chief foundation in North America. The university of Georgia is at Louisville: and some other provinces boast of other colleges, or rather considerable academies. These detached institutions seem better calculated for the promotion of knowledge, than one or two great universities. In New Hampshire Dartmouth College was founded in 1769, for the instruction of the savages; but has since become an ample endowment for the youth of the northern provinces.

CITIES.—With regard to size and consequence the cities of the United States must be thus arranged: Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Baltimore, Charlestown; but in relation to commerce New York precedes Philadelphia, and Charlestown ranks above Baltimore. Before proceeding to a brief account of these cities it will be proper to describe that of Washington, the intended metropolis of the United States.

Washington.—The city of Washington, in the territory of Columbia, was ceded by the states of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, and by them established as the seat of their government, after the year 1800. This city, which is now building, stands at the junction of the rivers Patomak and the eastern branches, latitude 38 deg. 53 min. north, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by none in America; for although the land in general appears level, yet by gentle and gradual swellings a variety of elegant prospects is produced, and a sufficient descent formed for conveying off the water occasioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent springs; and by digging wells, water of the best quality may readily be had. Besides the never failing streams that now run through that territory may also be collected for the use of the city. The waters of Reedy branch, and of Tiber creek, may be conveyed to the president's house. The source of Tiber creek is elevated about 236 feet above the level of the tide. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the Capitol is to stand is 78 feet above the level of the tide in Tiber creek: the water of Tiber creek may therefore be conveyed to the Capitol, and after watering that part of the city may be destined to other useful purposes.

'The eastern branch is one of the safest and most commodious harbours in America, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies close along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patomak, although only navigable for small craft, for a considerable distance from its banks next to the city, (extending about half a mile above the junction of the rivers,) will nevertheless afford a capacious summer harbour; as an immense number of ships may ride in the great channel opposite to, and below, the city.

'The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post road, equidistant from the northern and southern extremities of the Union, and nearly so from the Atlantic and Pittsburg, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the richest, and commanding the most extensive internal resources, of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible

place for the permanent seat of the general government; and as it is likely to be speedily built, and otherwise improved by the public-spirited enterprise of the people of the United States, and even by foreigners, it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities.

'The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon that of the best planned cities in the world, combining in a remarkable degree convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air. The positions for the different public edifices, and for the several squares, and areas of different shapes, as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects, and from their situation susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The Capitol will be situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The president's house will stand on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water prospect, together with a commanding view of the Capitol, and of the most material parts of the city. Lines or avenues of direct communication have been devised, to connect the most distant and important objects. These transverse avenues or diagonal streets are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience; and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and south lines, intersected by others running due east and west, make the distribution of the city into streets, squares, &c. and those lines have been so combined as to meet at certain given points with the divergent avenues, so as to form on the spaces first determined the different squares or areas. The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to public places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into footways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages. The other streets are from 90 to 110 feet wide.

'In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicot drew a meridional line, by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the Capitol. This line he crossed by another, running due east and west, which passes through

the same area. These lines were accurately measured, and made the bases on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.

Mr. Weld observes a grand defect in the plan, the want of a grand and extensive quay, the shores being crowded with small wooden wharfs and warehouses; but these are only temporary, and no lasting edifice is to be permitted except in brick or stone. In the Capitol the national councils are to assemble; and so grand is the plan, that the expence is estimated at a million of dollars, or 225,000*l.* sterling.—The banks of the Patomak present inexhaustible quarries of excellent freestone, harder than that of Portland; and at no great distance are found slate, paving stone, and limestone, and, it is said, excellent coal.

The roads in the vicinity of Washington are execrable. 'Speculation,' says a late traveller, 'the life of the American, embraced the design of the new city. Several companies of speculators purchased lots, and began to build handsome streets, with an ardour that soon promised a large and populous city. Before they arrived at the attic story, the failure was manifest; and in that state at this moment are the walls of many scores of houses begun on a plan of elegance. In some parts, purchasers have cleared the wood from their grounds, and erected temporary wooden buildings; others have fenced in their lots, and attempted to cultivate them; but the sterility of the land laid out for the city is such, that this plan has also failed. The country adjoining consists of woods in a state of nature, and in some places of mere swamps, which give the scene a curious patch-work appearance. The avenue of Pennsylvania is the largest; in fact I never heard of more than that and the New Jersey Avenue, except some houses uniformly built, in one of which lives Mr. Jefferson's printer, John Harrison Smith, a few more of inferior note, with some public-houses, and here and there a little *grog-shop*. This boasted avenue is as much a wilderness as Kentucky, with this disadvantage, that the soil is good for nothing. Some half-starved cattle browsing among the bushes, present a melancholy spectacle to a stranger, whose expectation has been wound up by the illusive description of speculative writers. So very thinly is the

city peopled, and so little is it frequented, that quails and other birds are constantly shot within a hundred yards of the Capitol, and even during the sitting of the houses of congress.'

In August, 1814, Major-general Ross, having defeated the American army that covered Washington, entered this city, and burnt and destroyed the Capitol, the House of Representatives, the various public offices, the president's house, the rope-walk, arsenals, and dock-yard; the value of which was estimated at *three millions* sterling. The American government, notwithstanding this severe blow, which might be expected to have destroyed the project of the new capital, seem determined to restore the public edifices, and to persist in residing in this almost ruined city.

Philadelphia.—The city of Philadelphia is supposed to contain about 50,000 inhabitants, and was designed by William Penn, the first proprietor and founder of the colony called Pennsylvania, in 1683. The form is an oblong square, extending about two miles east and west between the rivers Delaware and Schuylkill, or rather on the western bank of the former river. This city is neatly constructed, the chief streets being 100 feet in breadth, paved with pebbles, and the foot paths with brick.—They are chiefly in a strait line, a form not approved by lovers of the picturesque; but in a city the chief objects are convenience, and a short access from one part to another. The charter of incorporation, granted by Penn in 1701, was singularly aristocratic, being copied from that of Bristol in England; but the general assembly of the province, in 1789, formed a liberal plan; and the government of the city, the prisons, &c. may now be regarded as surpassing any in the world. There are many humane institutions, and a large public library. Amidst this deserved praise, it is truly surprising that one street, called Water-street, should remain a source of filth and contagion, especially as it was in this street that the noted yellow fever first appeared in 1793.

'The market is the great boast of the Philadelphians. It is a covered building, 420 of my steps in length, exclusive of the intersections of streets, and I calculated my step to be a yard; but only five feet in breadth, including the butchers' benches and blocks. It is well supplied; and its regularity and cleanliness indicate good living and wholesome regulations. No article

can be offered for sale here without first being submitted to the inspection of one of the clerks of the market, who seizes unwholesome articles, and a fine is inflicted upon the owner. The fish-market, from its distance to the sea, is but indifferently supplied, though much pains is taken to procure a regular supply. Light carts are constantly coming in from New York, and Burlington in New Jersey, with the most delicate fish of the ocean, and packed in ice during the summer. The beef is good, but the mutton and veal far inferior to that of England and Ireland.

The gaol in Philadelphia is situated in Walnut Street, at the rear of the state-house. It is a large, strong, stone building, and in every respect adapted to the purposes for which it is destined. The regulations of this place of punishment are worthy of the imitation of European nations. It is regularly inspected by a committee of the inhabitants, who cheerfully in turn undertake the office without reward.—They examine into the cleanliness of the rooms and the prisoners, who are regularly washed, and in summer bathed, and then supplied with a change of linen. Their diet is also regulated, and no spirituous liquor, doubtless in most cases the primary cause which reduced the people to their unhappy situation, is suffered to be introduced to state prisoners.

The Bank of the United States does infinite credit to the nation. It is a superb edifice of the Corinthian order, with a majestic portico of six fluted columns of stone, found in abundance in many parts of the Union, similar to Portland stone. This building indicates the flourishing state of those finances which were organized by the much-lamented General Hamilton.

Every thing which can contribute to the comfort of the inhabitants, has of late years been supplied in Philadelphia, and if it rests with man to avert the malignancy of the summer fever, which, however, he has hitherto attempted in vain, the regulations of the police must greatly contribute to the consummation of so important an end. The city is well supplied with water from the river Schuylkill, by means of a steam-engine, in a handsome building at the intersection of the two principal streets; connecting ornament with public utility.

A covered bridge has lately been erected over the river Schuylkill. This beautiful wooden structure was designed by William Weston,

Esq. of Gainsborough, in Lincolnshire. It contains 800,000 feet of timber, board measure; was six years in building, and cost 40,000 dollars. The length of this bridge, including the abutments and wingwalls, is 1300 feet, the width 52 feet; the middle arch 194 feet, 10 inches, two others 150 each; and the enclosed height over the carriage-way thirty-one feet.—The amount of the toll for the year 1805, was 15,600 dollars.

The library is an institution which does credit to the country. It is open the greater part of the day for strangers, who are attended by a librarian, ready to hand them such books as they may select from the catalogue. He is paid by the society, which is an incorporated body. A handsome building was erected by them in North Fifth Street; and the late Mr. Bingham, of Philadelphia, presented the society with a fine piece of statuary, in white marble, representing Dr. Franklin at full length, and which is placed above the entrance from the street. The number of volumes at present, including the Loganian library, amounts to 20,000, the selection of which has, in general, been calculated to promote the more important interests of society. The stock of books is continually increasing by occasional donations, annual importations, and purchases of every publication of merit. Some valuable machines and apparatus for the purposes of natural philosophy, and a variety of other curious, artificial, and natural productions, also belong to the company, and are deposited in other apartments of the building.

The museum is a striking instance of the persevering industry of an individual, while the grant of the Old State-House for its exhibition does honour to the city. The proprietor is Mr. Charles W. Peale, by profession a painter, which he relinquished, and became a virtuoso. He says, 'that in the year 1783, he began his collections with some bones of the mammoth, and the paddle-fish; and that in the year 1802, the legislature of Pennsylvania, influenced by the idea of its increasing utility, granted the upper part of the State-House for the use of the Museum.'

The amiable and tolerant character of the quakers differed widely from that of the fanatic settlers in New England: at present they do not exceed one fourth part of the inhabitants; and their aversion to the elegancies and luxuries of life is overcome by the wishes of the

majority. Gay equipages are not rare in the streets of Philadelphia, and the theatre begins to be frequented. The expence of labour and domestic economy was, about five or six years ago, considered as higher in Philadelphia, and indeed in most parts of the United States, than in England; but at present it is probably far lower. This beautiful city is calculated to contain 13,000 houses, and 80,000 inhabitants.—Ships of 1000 tons may approach the wharfs.

New York.—New York, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on a promontory at the mouth of Hudson River, a noble and picturesque stream. The bay is about nine miles long, and three broad, without reckoning the branches of the rivers on each side of the town. From the ocean at Sandy Hook to the city is not more than twenty-eight miles. The water is deep enough to float the largest vessels. Ships of ninety guns have anchored opposite the city. There they lie land-locked, and well secured from winds and storms; and fleets of the greatest number have ample space for mooring.

New York is the first city in the United States for wealth, commerce, and population; as it also is the finest and most agreeable for its situation and buildings. It has neither the narrow and confined irregularity of Boston, nor the monotonous regularity of Philadelphia, but a happy medium between both. When the intended improvements are completed, it will be a very elegant and commodious town.

The Broadway and the Bowery Road are the two finest avenues in the city, and nearly of the same width as Oxford Street in London. The first commences from the Grand Battery, situate at the extreme point of the town, and divides it into two unequal parts. It is upwards of two miles in length, though the pavement does not extend above a mile and a quarter: the remainder of the road consists of straggling houses, which are the commencement of new streets already planned out. The Bowery Road commences from Chatham Street, which branches off from the Broadway to the right, by the side of the Park. After proceeding about a mile and a half it joins the Broadway, and terminates the plan which is intended to be carried into effect for the enlargement of the city.

The houses in the Broadway are lofty and well built. They are constructed in the English style, and differ but little from those of

London at the west end of the town; except that they are universally built of *red* brick. In the vicinity of the Battery, and for some distance up the Broadway, they are nearly all private houses, and occupied by the principal merchants and gentry of New York; after which the Broadway is lined with large commodious shops of every description, well stocked with European and India goods, and exhibiting as splendid and varied a show in their windows as can be met with in London. There are several extensive book stores, print shops, music-shops, jewellers, and silversmiths; hatters, linen-draper, milliners, pastry-cooks, coach-makers, hotels, and coffee-houses. The street is well paved, and the foot-paths are chiefly bricked. In Robinson Street the pavement before one of the houses, and the steps of the door, are composed entirely of marble.

A Court-house on a large scale, and worthy of the improved state of the city, has recently been built at the end of the Park, between the Broadway and Chatham Street, in a style of magnificence unequalled in many of the larger cities of Europe. The exterior consists wholly of fine marble, ornamented in a very neat and elegant style of architecture; and the whole is surmounted by a beautiful dome, which forms a noble ornament to that part of the town, in which are also situated the Theatre, Mechanic Hall, and some of the best private houses in New York. The Park, though not remarkable for its size, is, however, of service, by displaying the surrounding building to greater advantage; and is also a relief to the confined appearance of the streets in general. It consists of about four acres planted with elms, planes, willows, and catalpas; and the surrounding foot-walk is encompassed by rows of poplars: the whole is inclosed by a wooden paling. This city has its Vauxhall and Ranelagh; but they are poor imitations of those near London. They are, however, pleasant places of recreation for the inhabitants.

The water side is lined with shipping which lie along the wharfs, or in the small docks called slips, of which there are upwards of twelve towards the East river, besides numerous piers. The wharfs are large and commodious, and the warehouses, which are nearly all new buildings, are lofty and substantial. The merchants, ship-brokers, &c. have their offices in front on the ground floor of their warehouses. These ranges

of buildings and wharfs extend from the Grand Battery, on both sides of the town, up the Hudson and East rivers, and encompass the houses with shipping, whose forest of masts gives a stranger a lively idea of the immense trade which this city carries on with every part of the globe. New York appears to him the Tyre of the new world.

The commerce of New York, before the embargo, was in a high state of prosperity and progressive improvement. The merchants traded with almost every part of the world; and though at times they suffered some privations and checks from the belligerent powers of Europe, yet their trade increased, and riches continued to pour in upon them. The amount of tonnage belonging to the port of New York in 1806 was 183,671 tons. And the number of vessels in the harbour on the 25th of December, 1807, when the embargo took place, was 537. The monies collected in New York for the national treasury, on the imports and tonnage, have for several years amounted to one-fourth of the public revenue. In 1806 the sum collected was 6,500,000 dollars, which after deducting the drawbacks left a nett revenue of 4,500,000 dollars; which was paid into the treasury of the United States as the proceeds of one year.

New York contains thirty-three places of worship, viz. nine episcopal churches, three Dutch churches, one French church, one Calvinist, one German Lutheran, one English Lutheran, three Baptist meetings, three Methodist meetings, one Moravian, six Presbyterian, one Independent, two Quakers', and one Jews' synagogue.

There are thirty-one benevolent institutions in New York. Upwards of twenty newspapers are published in this city, nearly half of which are daily papers; besides several weekly and monthly magazines and essays. A public library is also established here, which consists of about ten thousand volumes, many of them rare and valuable books. The building which contains them is situated in Nassau Street, and the trustees are incorporated by an act of the legislature. There are also three or four public reading-rooms, and circulating libraries, which are supported by some of the principal booksellers, from the annual subscriptions of the inhabitants. There is a museum of natural curiosities in New York, but it contains nothing worthy of particular notice.

In the year 1697 New York contained 4,302 inhabitants, and in 1807 the population was 83,540. The number of deaths is at least one *thirtieth*, whereas the deaths in London are only about a *fiftieth* part of its population. It must, however, be observed, that suicides are much more numerous in New York than in London.

Boston.—Boston is an irregular built town, situated on a peninsula whose surface is broken by small hills; and, except where the isthmus appears in sight, seems completely environed by a beautiful river. It cannot boast of much uniformity and elegance; but, with respect to situation, it is extremely beautiful.

Boston bears considerable resemblance to an old city in England. It is two miles in length, but of unequal breadth, being seven hundred and twenty-six yards at the broadest part. It contains about 3500 dwelling-houses, many of which are built of wood, besides a great number of store-houses.

From an elevated part of the town the spectator enjoys a succession of the most beautiful views that imagination can conceive. Around him, as far as the eye can reach, are to be seen towns, villages, country seats, rich farms, and pleasure grounds, seated upon the summits of small hills, hanging on the brows of gentle slopes, or reclining in the laps of spacious valleys, whose shores are watered by a beautiful river, across which are thrown several bridges and causeways.

That portion of the town called West Boston contains most of the dwelling-houses of the gentry and principal merchants. A number of elegant buildings of red brick have within these few years been erected; and wide spacious streets, consisting of handsome private houses of similar construction, are yet forming throughout that end of the town. These streets are mostly in the vicinity of Beacon Hill, a rising ground of considerable elevation, situate behind the new state-house. On this hill a monumental pillar is erected, with a gilt eagle at the top, bearing the arms of the United States. On the pedestal of the column are inscriptions commemorating the most remarkable events of the Revolution.

The new state-house is, perhaps, more indebted to its situation for the handsome appearance it exhibits, than to any merit of the building itself. It is built upon part of the rising ground upon which Beacon Hill is situ-

ated, and fronts the park, an extensive common planted with a double row of trees along the borders. The lower part of the building is constructed in a plain and simple style of architecture, with red brick, and surmounted by a large circular dome of the same materials, coloured yellow. The whole has a neat and ornamental appearance; but if stone had been substituted for brick, it would then have been a structure worthy of admiration, and honourable to the people of Boston.

The Park was formerly a large common, but has recently been enclosed, and the borders planted with trees. On the east side there has been for many years a mall, or walk, planted with a double row of large trees, somewhat resembling that in St. James's Park, but scarcely half its length. It affords the inhabitants an excellent promenade in fine weather. At the bottom of the park is a branch of the harbour; and along the shore, to the westward, are several extensive rope-walks built upon piers. At high water boats and barges can be admitted between the walks, which are all roofed in, and have large brick warehouses at the eastern end. Considerable quantities of excellent cordage are manufactured at these walks, and form an article of exportation to the other states. In the street next the mall, at the upper end of the park, there is a stand of hackney coaches, superior in every respect to vehicles of that description in London.

The other portion of Boston, which may with propriety be called the *Old Town*, is the seat of trade and commerce, and contains numerous streets, lanes, and alleys, crowded with stores, shops, warehouses, wharfs, and piers; taverns, coffee-houses, and porter-houses; insurance offices, banks, and state buildings; churches, chapels, and meetings.

Of late years considerable improvements have taken place in East Boston. Towards the harbour an extensive range of lofty warehouses have been erected upon India Wharf: they are built of red brick, with much neatness and uniformity. Offices for the merchants are below, and the upper part of the building is appropriated to the reception of goods. A short distance from these warehouses to the northward, is Long Wharf, or Boston Pier, which extends from the bottom of State Street, upwards of 1,750 feet into the harbour. Its breadth is above 100 feet. On the north side of this im-

mense wharf is a range of large warehouses, extending the whole length of the pier.

Along the water side there is a great number of other piers, which extend a considerable way into the harbour; these form as many open docks, or slips, which admit vessels of almost every size and draught of water up to the very doors of the houses. Viewing this sight from an eminence it has a singular and beautiful effect; the crowded masts and rigging of the vessels appear in the midst of the streets, and the colours of all nations are seen flying over the tops of the houses.

Boston is well paved, and has excellent foot-paths of flag stones. The streets, which in the old town are generally narrow and irregularly laid out, are for the most part clean and in good order. The markets are situated near each other, close to the water side; and are supplied with every description of provisions in the greatest plenty, and at a moderate price. But they are crowded and confined by the surrounding buildings, and the narrow lanes and alleys in the vicinity. This, together with the number of shabby shops and alehouses in the neighbourhood, gives to this part of the town an unseemly appearance, which is still further increased by the litter and confusion unavoidable in a market-place.

The bridge connecting Boston with Charlestown is a surprising work. It is of wood, with a draw for the admission of vessels, and is 3483 feet in length, and 40 feet wide. On the same river, and not above two miles farther up the country, is another bridge of this nature, 1503 feet long, and 42 in width. The principal manufactures of Boston are, sail-cloth, cordage, hats, wool and cotton cards, pot and pearl-ashes, paper hangings, plate and common glass, loaf sugar, tobacco, chocolate, and an immense quantity of playing cards, on which they counterfeit the English figures with great exactness. Above forty distilleries are employed in making that detestable spirit called Yankee rum! which is used in preference to that agreeable and nutritious beverage, malt liquor, two breweries for which can barely be supported by this large town and its populous vicinity.

The population of Boston, according to the census of 1800, was 24,937; about three years after it amounted to 28,000; and very lately was computed to be upwards of 30,000. The majority of the people are Congregationalists;

the remainder consist of Episcopalians, Baptists, Quakers, Universalists, Roman Catholics, Methodists, and Sandemanians. They have twenty places of worship, of which *nine* belong to the Congregationalists, and *four* to the Episcopalians.

'Sundays are observed,' says a late traveller, 'with the strictest decorum; the town appears as if completely deserted; and scarcely a person is seen walking the streets, except in going to or coming from a place of worship. This strict observance of religious duties disposes a stranger to judge favourably of the moral character of the people; nor has he any reason to alter his opinion, until he hears of so many unfortunate females in the cities.'

The inhabitants are distinguished for their domestic habits, regularity of living, integrity in their dealings, hospitality to strangers, strict piety and devotion, and respect for the moral and social virtues; upon which depend the happiness and well being of a community.

Several daily and weekly newspapers, and a few magazines and reviews are published in Boston. Like those of other towns, the newspapers are attached to the principles of the two parties which at present divide the people; and in their political animadversions they are by no means tender of the character of their opponents. The fanatical spirit of this city seems gradually to subside; and Mr. Burke observes, after narrating the witchcraft delusion, 1692, in which so many innocent people perished by the bigotry of two clergymen called Encrease and Cotton Mather, 'that the people there are now grown somewhat like the rest of mankind in their manners, and have much abated of their persecuting spirit.' This city is even already ranked by some among the most pleasing and sociable in the United States.

Charlestown.—The site of Charlestown nearly resembles that of New York, being on a point of land at the confluence of the rivers Ashley and Cooper, and about fifteen miles distant from the light-house. The town is built on a level sandy soil, which is elevated but a few feet above the height of spring tides. The streets extend east and west between the two rivers; and others intersect them nearly at right angles from north to south. From its open exposure to the ocean it is subject to storms and inundations, which affect the security of its harbour. The city has also suffered much by fires: the last, in 1796,

destroyed upwards of 500 houses, and occasioned 300,000*l.* sterling damage.

The number of dwelling-houses, public buildings, and warehouses, &c. at present in Charlestown, is estimated at 3,500. With the exception of Meeting Street, Broad Street, and the Bay, the streets are in general narrow and confined. They are all unpaved; and in blowing weather whirlwinds of dust and sand fill the houses, and blind the eyes of the people. The foot-paths are all constructed of bricks; but a few years ago not even this convenience existed.

The houses in Meeting Street and the back parts of the town are many of them handsomely built; some of brick, others of wood. They are, in general, lofty and extensive, and are separated from each other by small gardens or yards, in which the kitchens and out-offices are built. Almost every house is furnished with balconies and verandas, some of which occupy the whole side of the building from top to bottom, having a gallery for each floor. They are sometimes shaded with Venetian blinds, and afford the inhabitants a pleasant cool retreat from the scorching beams of the sun. Most of the modern houses are built with much taste and elegance; but the chief aim seems to be to make them as cool as possible. The town is also crowded with wooden buildings of a very inferior description. Three of the public buildings, and the episcopal church of St. Michael, are situated at the four corners formed by the intersection of Broad and Meeting Streets, the two principal avenues in Charlestown.

A tree called the *Pride of India* is planted in rows along the foot-paths of the streets in Charlestown. It does not grow very high, but its umbrageous leaves and branches afford the inhabitants an excellent shelter from the sun. It has the advantage also of not engendering insects, none of which can live upon it, in consequence of its poisonous qualities. The large clusters of flowers in blossom resemble the lilac; these are succeeded by bunches of yellow berries, each about the size of a small cherry, and like it containing one stone. It is a deciduous tree; but the berries remain on it all the winter, and drop off the following spring. It would be an object worthy of inquiry for the medical gentlemen of Charlestown, to ascertain, if possible, whether this tree is beneficial or injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The very advantage for which it is preferred above other

trees, appears a strong objection against it; for, if it causes the death of those insects which approach it, how can it be otherwise than hurtful to the human frame constantly imbibing, under a burning sun, the faint and sickly vapours which arise from its wide-spreading foliage?

The principal public buildings, besides those which have been already enumerated, are the exchange, a large respectable building situated in the East Bay, opposite Broad Street; a poor house; a college, or rather grammar school; a theatre; and an orphan-house. The latter building is worthy of the city of Charlestown. It contains about 150 children of both sexes, and the annual expence for provision, clothing, firewood, &c. is about 14,000 dollars, which is defrayed by the legislature of the State of South Carolina. Since its institution, upwards of 1,700 boys and girls have been received into the house.

The theatre is a plain brick building, situated at the top of Broad Street. It is about the size of our Circus or Surrey theatre, but not so handsomely fitted up. One side of it is in the rules of the gaol; which is a very convenient circumstance for the ladies of easy virtue and others who are confined in 'durance vile.'

The garden dignified by the name of Vauxhall possesses no decoration worthy of notice, and the situation and climate of Charlestown are by no means adapted for entertainments *al fresco*. The heavy dews and vapours which arise from the swamps and marshes in its neighbourhood, after a hot day, are highly injurious to the constitution, particularly while it is inflamed by the wine and spirituous liquors which are drank in the garden.

Charlestown contains a handsome and commodious market-place, which is as well supplied with provisions as the country will permit.—Compared, however, with the markets of the northern towns, the supply is very inferior, both in quality and quantity. The present population of Charlestown is reckoned about 28,000: of this number not more than 7,000 are whites, the rest are negroes and people of colour, the majority of whom are slaves.

In the year 1783 Charlestown was incorporated by an act of the legislature, and called the city of Charlestown. It was then divided into thirteen wards, each of which annually choose a warden by ballot; and from the whole of the wardens so chosen an intendant is afterwards

elected by the citizens. These form a council for the government of the city, by whom all ordinances are passed for its regulation. Its police is enforced by a city guard, under the command of a captain and other officers; and with the incorporation of the city, additional taxes are laid on its inhabitants for supporting the expence of the same, amounting annually to not less than 60,000 dollars.

Since the French Revolution Charlestown has been the medium of the greatest part of that trade which has been carried on between the French West India islands and the mother country under the neutral flag of the United States. The number of vessels that entered the port of Charlestown in 1801 amounted to 1,274, of which 875 belonged to that port, the rest were chiefly British vessels. At the time the embargo reached Charlestown, the number of vessels in port were, ships 78, brigs 42, schooners and sloops 85—total 205.

This city is celebrated for easy and social manners; but strangers have noticed that affectation of superiority which so generally characterizes the Americans: nor does the number and degradation of the slaves in Charlestown accord with those ideas of republican equality which their masters profess. Indeed the cruelties practised upon this unfortunate race, in the southern states of this free country, can scarcely be exceeded in any European colony.

Baltimore.—Baltimore in Maryland stands on the north side of the river Patapsco, which may rather be regarded as a creek of the great bay of Chesapeake, and has rapidly risen to its present consequence. The situation is rather low, but it has been rendered by art tolerably salubrious. A creek divides it into two parts, Baltimore town and Fell's Point, to the latter of which vessels of 600 tons can sail; but only small vessels can come up to the town. The bason, as it is called, is very capacious, and capable of holding 2000 sail. This town contains ten places of public worship, three theatres, and about 18,000 inhabitants. Some of the most opulent families are extremely hospitable and polite; but the poorer sort, which are composed of people of various nations, have been described as singularly selfish, rude, and ignorant. The revenue of Baltimore in 1801 amounted to 3,861,963 dollars.

Savannah.—This town was founded in the year 1733, and was the first settlement in the

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state of Georgia; but the seat of government is now at Augusta, which is also built on the banks of the Savannah, about 236 miles distant from the sea.

The town of Savannah is built upon an open sandy plain, which forms a cliff, or, as the Americans term it, a *bluff*, by the shore, about 50 feet above the level of the river. It is well laid out for a warm climate, in the form of a parallelogram, about a mile and a quarter long, and half a mile wide. The streets are wide, and open into spacious squares, each of which has a pump in the centre, surrounded by a small plantation of trees. A great disadvantage, however, to the town, is the total want of foot-paths and pavement. Improvements of this nature would render walking more agreeable, and the town more cool and healthy. At present, one sinks at every step up to the ancles in sand; and in windy weather the eyes, mouth, and nostrils are filled with it.

The houses are mostly built of wood, and stand separate from each other, divided by court yards, except in two or three streets, where they are close built, many of them with brick, and contain several shops and stores. One large range of brick buildings stands near the market-place, and at a distance has the appearance of an hospital. The principal street is that called the Bay, where there are several very good houses of brick and wood. Some contain booksellers', grocers', and drapers' stores, others are private dwellings. This range of buildings extends nearly three quarters of a mile along the town; and opposite to it is a beautiful walk or mall, planted with a double row of trees, the same as those at Charlestown. This agreeable promenade is situated near the margin of the height or bluff upon which the town stands; and the merchants' stores, warehouses, and wharfs, for landing, housing, and shipping of goods, are built immediately below, along the shore, forming in some degree a sort of lower town. From the height there is a fine commanding view of the Savannah river as far as the sea, and for several miles above the town. About the centre of the walk, and just on the verge of the cliff, stands the Exchange, a large brick building, which contains some public offices, and an assembly-room, where a concert and ball are held once a fortnight during the winter.

By a census taken eight or nine years ago,

the population of Savannah consisted of 3009 whites and free people of colour, and 2376 slaves, making a total of 5385. At present it is supposed to be about 6000. The public buildings consist of the Branch bank of the United States; the Exchange; four or five places of worship; and a gaol, built upon the common, some distance from town. The latter is a large strong brick building, and well adapted for the confinement of refractory negroes, and other offenders against the laws.

With respect to the embellishments of civilized society, Georgia is yet in the *Gothic age*. Savannah contains five or six respectable book-stores, and publishes three newspapers; two of which are attached to federal principles. The military force of the state consists of militia; but Savannah has several corps of volunteers, infantry and cavalry, who clothe and equip themselves at their own expence.

The inhabitants of this city, and indeed the Georgians in general, are said to be great economists; that is to say, they hate to part with their money even for the most useful purposes. The planters have less of the free and generous extravagance of Carolinian planters, though, like them, they are always in debt, and every one complains of the difficulty of getting money from them. Horse-jockeying and racing are favourite amusements with the people, and they do not scruple to bet high on these occasions. Upon the whole they possess all the bad but very few of the good properties of their Carolinian neighbours.

Such are the principal cities of the United States; and to enumerate the others would be alike tedious and temporary; as, amidst new foundations and improvements, great changes often happen in their relative consequence.

INLAND NAVIGATION.—Little occasion has hitherto arisen for opening any canals for inland navigation, as the numerous great rivers have been found sufficient for the purposes of intercourse. No country in the world can boast of superior means of inland commerce by the great river Missouri, and many other navigable streams, not to mention lakes of prodigious extent. A canal, it is believed, is now opened between the rivers Schuylkill and Susquehanna, and others are projected. The roads also begin to be improved, and several bridges have been erected, some of which in timber are of considerable extent. But in Georgia, Vermont, and several other parts, the

roads are most execrable. A recent traveller in Vermont says, 'We were often obliged to pass over bridges actually condemned by the select men at different places, who had put up notices, that they would not be answerable for the necks of those who were hardy enough to venture across; yet these sapient folks had not provided any other route for travellers. The bad roads and bridges in these parts, I am told, would soon be repaired, if the republican or democratic party did not oppose the turnpike system, which is certainly the only method of remedying the grievance at present so much complained of. They conceive that the *sovereign people* ought not to be taxed, even for their own benefit. They would rather that his *hydra-headed* majesty should break one of his many necks, than that they should lose their popularity as *economists*.'

MANUFACTURES.—The manufactures of the United States may mostly be considered as still in their infancy, as they were accustomed to be supplied by Great Britain; and though the bond of authority be broken, the commercial chains remain. The chief manufactures are tanned leather, and dressed skins; various common works in iron and in wood; ships, for which Boston was celebrated; with several articles of machinery and husbandry. Cables, sail-cloth, cordage, twine, packthread, bricks, tiles, and pottery, paper of all kinds, hats, sugars, snuff, gunpowder, are also American manufactures; with some utensils in copper, brass, and tin; clocks, and mathematical machines, and carriages of all descriptions. The domestic manufactures, in coarse cloths, serges, flannels, cotton and linen goods of several sorts, not only suffice for the families, but are sometimes sold, and even exported; and in most districts a great part of the dress is the product of domestic industry. Good wines have been made by French settlers on the Ohio from various wild grapes, particularly the black and fox, which grow spontaneously in these regions. The maple sugar is prepared in the northern and middle states, and is deemed by many equal to that from the cane. The recent commotions in Europe have probably driven many able manufacturers to America, where machinery is particularly valuable, as the price of labour is so exorbitant.

COMMERCE.—The bank of Philadelphia was founded in 1787; and seems to have been suc-

cessful: it is called the bank of the United States, the capital stock being ten millions of dollars. The coinage consists of eagles in gold, with a half and quarter, the eagle being valued at ten dollars or two pounds five shillings sterling, thus exceeding by about one quarter the golden mohur of Hindostan. In silver, besides the dollar, with the half and quarter, there are dismes or tenths of a dollar, worth nearly sixpence English, and half dismes or twentieths. The cent in copper is equal to the hundredth part of a dollar, or little more than the English halfpenny; while the half cent nearly corresponds with the farthing.

The commerce of the United States, previous to the embargo, was in the most flourishing state, notwithstanding the depredations said to have been committed upon it by the belligerent powers of Europe, as will appear from the following official documents, laid before the House of Representatives on the 29th of February, 1808, by Albert Gallatin, Secretary of the Treasury.

'Exports of the United States, from 1st October, 1806, to 1st October, 1807.'

The goods, wares, and merchandise of domestic growth, or manufacture	Dols. 48,699,592
Do. of foreign growth or manufacture	59,643,558

Total Dols. 108,343,150

Recapitulation of the above.

The foreign goods are classed as follows:—

1st. Articles free of duty by law	2,080,114
2d. Do. liable to duty, and on re-exportation entitled to drawback.....	48,205,943
3d. Do. liable to duty, but no drawback on re-exportation	9,357,501

Dols. 59,643,558

N. B. The duties collected on the 3d class are derived directly from the carrying trade, and amount to Dols. 1,393,877.

The articles of domestic growth or manufacture are arranged as follows:—

1st. Produce of the sea.....	2,804,000
2d. Do. of the forest.....	5,476,000
3d. Do. of agriculture	37,832,000
4th. Do of manufactures.....	2,409,000
5th. Do uncertain.....	179,000

Dols. 48,700,000

Mr. Key, in his very able and masterly speech against the continuance of the embargo, stated, that of the exports of domestic produce of the United States, in 1807, amounting to 48,699,592 dollars, only 9,762,204 were exported to European ports *under the controul of France*, which had been since interdicted by the British orders in council; and that there consequently remained a surplus of 38,937,388 dollars of *American produce* which might yet be exported, if the embargo had not taken place: but war might have happened between France and America, a measure which Mr. Jefferson and his party wished to avoid. The tonnage in the year 1808 was estimated at 1,207,000, navigated by 64,000 seamen.

Political Geography.

RELIGION.—Soon after Mr. Jefferson's advancement to the presidency, the tythes of the episcopal clergy were entirely abolished, and the church lands sold for the use of government. All religious sects are therefore on the same footing, without supremacy, or limited salaries. In the New England states, Presbyterians and Baptists are the most numerous. New York has a large proportion of adherents to the church of England, which many of the Dutch also attend. New Jersey contains a mixture of Quakers, Baptists, and Presbyterians. In Pennsylvania, founded by William Penn, a quaker, a great part of the inhabitants are consequently of that persuasion. Maryland, like Pennsylvania, follows the religion of the ancient proprietor, Lord Baltimore. About one half of the people are therefore Roman Catholics. In Virginia, the Methodists teach their tenets with the greatest success amongst the lower orders of people. In the Carolinas, (to use Dr. Morse's observation) 'Religion is at a very low ebb.'—The inhabitants of these states he called North-ingarians. Sundays are there passed in riot and drunkenness; and the negroes indulge uncontrolled in tumultuous sports and licentiousness. At night they prowl about, stealing wherever they find opportunity, at the risk of a severe flogging in the morning. At Charlestown, they make some shew of religion on the sabbath, but, perhaps, with as little devotion as in the other parts of the state. Georgia, there is every reason to believe, is, with respect to religion, nearly on a par with the Carolinas. In Con-

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necticut, the sabbath is kept in the most rigid manner; a great majority of the people being Baptists and Presbyterians.

In all the other states, Maryland excepted, the principal merchants and men of property are chiefly of the church of England. The Roman Catholics are the most moderate and orderly of the other sects. They have handsome churches in New York and Philadelphia. At Baltimore a Metropolitan cathedral is built, on an extensive scale, under the patronage and protection of Bishop Cleggett, a man of good sense and erudition, who governs the Catholic church throughout the United States with much propriety.

Amongst the numerous religious sects in the United States, there is one, which for extravagance of action, during their orisons, is certainly pre-eminent. These people are called *Shakers*. The first society was formed at Harvard, in the state of Massachusetts, by Ann Lee, who denominated herself their *mother*; and she associated herself with William Lee, her *natural* brother, as her second; John Parkinson, who had formerly been a baptist preacher in England, the chief speaker; and James Whitaker, second speaker.

These people had converts in numbers, and from distant parts, who laid up stores of provisions for such as tarried at Harvard. Their meetings, which continued day and night for a considerable time, consisted of preaching, singing, and dancing; the men in one apartment, the women in another. These meetings were attended by converts from a great distance, who staid from two to twenty days. They had missionaries in the country making proselytes, and confirming others in this fancied millenium state. Those were taught to be very industrious at home, that they might be able to contribute to the general fund, and many devoted their whole substance to the society. They vary their exercises of devotion. Sometimes they dance, or rather jump, up and down in a heavy manner till they are exhausted by the violence of the exercise. The chief speaker will sometimes begin to pray, they then desist to listen to him, and when he has finished, immediately renew their dancing with increased vigour.—Then generally follows the shaking, as if shuddering under an ague, from which they have received the name of shakers. They sing praises to David during the dancing. The women are

equally employed in the fatigues of these exercises under the eye of the mother in another apartment, where they jump and scream in dreadful concert. Sometimes there will be short intermissions, but in a minute or two, one of the chiefs will spring up, crying, 'As David danced, so will we before God;' the others follow this signal; and thus, alternately dancing, praying, and singing, they pass night after night, and often until morning. Mother Lee's followers have formed societies at New Lebanon and Hancock, in the state of New York, and in other parts the shakers, who call themselves believers, are spreading with enthusiastic rapidity.

The methodists assemble in the summer season in surprising numbers, in different parts of the United States. These are called camp-meetings, and converts will travel to attend them several hundred miles. A place is fixed upon at a convocation of the preachers, at which their bishop sometimes presides, and a distant time appointed for these meetings, which also draw together the neighbouring inhabitants for a considerable distance from motives of curiosity. They sometimes continue during a fortnight, and this time is passed in the field, in prayer. They bring with them provisions, tents or blankets, and support the numerous body of preachers, who continue bawling to the people in turns, day and night. When signs of conversion begin to be manifest, several preachers crowd round the object, exhorting a continuance of the efforts of the spirit, and displaying, in the most frightful images, the horrors which attend such as do not come unto them. The signs of regeneration are displayed in the most extravagant symptoms. Women are seen jumping, striking, and kicking, like raving maniacs; while the surrounding believers cannot keep them in postures of decency. This continues till the convert is entirely exhausted; but they consider the greater the resistance the more the faith; and thus they are admitted into what they term the *society*. The men, under the agony of conversion, find it sufficient to express their contrition by loud groans, with hands clasped and eyes closed.

GOVERNMENT.—By the constitution of the American republic, the congress of the United States consists of two houses of legislators, the senate, and the house of representatives. They exercise certain functions delegated to them by

the people, resembling those of the lords and commons of Great Britain. Acts of congress must pass both houses, and either house can throw out a bill, as in the English parliament. When the act has passed both houses, it is left for the *fiat* of the president; in short, in the manner of conducting their public business, the rules laid down in debate, and the standing orders of the house, they are modelled after the usage of their mother country.

The senate is composed of two members from each state; and as there are already seventeen states, that house consequently consists of thirty-four members, with the vice-president of the United States, who sits as their president; and who, on an equal division on a question, has the casting vote.

The house of representatives are elected by the free and uninfluenced voice of the people; every freeman having a right to vote at the elections, which take place every second year. Care was taken to guard against every species of corruption in this, as well as every part of the federal constitution, which was formed under the auspices of the man who was the principal agent in securing their independence;—Washington.

By this constitution, thirty-three thousand freemen are entitled to elect one of themselves, as a member of the house of representatives.—The following is the proportion of members sent by each state, arranged in geographical order.

1	From New Hampshire	5
2	- - Massachusetts	17
3	- - Vermont	4
4	- - Rhode Island	2
5	- - Connecticut	7
6	- - New York	17
7	- - New Jersey	6
8	- - Pennsylvania	18
9	- - Delaware	1
10	- - Maryland	9
11	- - Virginia	22
12	- - Kentucky	6
13	- - North Carolina	11
14	- - Tennessee	3
15	- - South Carolina	8
16	- - Georgia	4
17	- - Ohio	1
	- - Mississippi Territory	1
	- - Indiana Territory	1

Total 143

In the United States there are, according to calculation, upwards of one million slaves for life; and this unfortunate race are actually represented in congress, being enumerated with the white men in a certain ratio. Thus Virginia, with 40,160 free people less than Massachusetts, sends five representatives, and five electors for a president and a vice-president, more than Massachusetts; and this great influence arises from the enumeration of the slaves in Virginia, while Massachusetts admits *no kind of slavery*. 'The day is not far off,' says an American writer, 'when the southern and western states will have more representatives in congress, and electors for president and vice-president, for slaves only, than the northern for all their free people.'

The president commands the army and navy, and may pardon offences, except in case of impeachment: he makes treaties, with the consent of two thirds of the senators, who are also to advise in the appointment of ambassadors. Particular regulations are formed to prevent any distinct state from assuming offices which belong to the community, such as forming treaties, issuing letters of marque, and the like acts of independent sovereignty, which might endanger the union of the whole. The judicial power is lodged in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may ordain, the judges holding their offices during their good behaviour. Each province has also its peculiar government, consisting commonly of a senate and house of representatives, annually chosen.

LAWS.—In the United States law is easy of access, and the expence very small, compared to that of the English courts. The people are naturally inclined to litigation, the offspring of chicanery. In the county courts, which generally sit four times in the year, it is surprising to see the numbers of people assembled in a part which you would judge to be very thinly inhabited. Most of them have a cause upon the docket, and the remainder come, as they call it, 'for a frolic,' which produces intoxication; and in the southern states the most dreadful and savage combats.

It was to have been expected that a new and short code of laws should have appeared; but as the lawyers are a powerful body, and often chosen senators and representatives, it can scarcely be supposed that they should consent

to abridge their profits by a simplification of the laws. Different states have also particular ordinances and customs, which are permitted when they do not disturb the general concord. But a code of laws, to be held in universal observance, might afford a fair object of ambition. In Europe the code is most brief in the most despotic states, where the patient dies of an apoplexy; while in the more free states he perishes by a slow consumption.

The judges of the supreme courts, as in England, are appointed for life, and are removable from their office only by impeachment. A chief and four associate judges preside in the superior court of record. They go the circuit of the Union twice a year, and in each state hold a federal or government court, where all affairs relating to the Union, and matters of great import, are determined. They are associated and assisted in these circuits by district judges. Every state has a resident district judge, and under him are courts of law and equity which take cognizance of such business, arising in their state only, as may not be of sufficient importance to be brought before the federal court.

The distribution of property is equalized in cases of intestacy. The right of primogeniture is taken away, and the widow and the children share alike. The estate of the intestate is vested in the courts established for that purpose, and generally called the Orphan Court. A man may by will bequeath his property to his family in such shares and proportions as he may think fit, provided reason govern the deed.—Instances have often occurred, where a capricious or unjust demise has been made to the exclusion of children, that such will has been set aside, and an equitable distribution decreed. In demurrer, and all questions on law, American practitioners quote, and the courts admit, the reports of adjudications of the courts of record at Westminster.

A bankrupt law, modelled from those of England, passed the houses of congress on the 4th of April, 1800, and was repealed in December, 1803. The enormities committed under the cloak of this act; the inefficacy of the government to carry their laws into execution; added to the facility with which villains could with impunity defraud their creditors, loudly called for its repeal.

The bankrupt law being repealed, the insolvent, and such as choose to defraud their cre-

ditors, can still effect their purposes, if not so effectually, certainly with less trouble and more speed by the old law, which yet remains in force; the difference consisting in liberating the body only, leaving the goods afterwards acquired at the mercy of the creditor. 'The laws of the American states,' says a Philadelphian, 'are much too favourable to debtors willing to defraud their creditors. A man who owes more than he chooses to pay, in America, may transfer his property, by a secret assignment, to some confidential friend, suffer himself to be laid in prison for debt, then, after a few days' imprisonment, swear that he has nothing in the world wherewith to satisfy his creditors, come out of prison free from any claims of creditors, resume the property of which he had made a trust-transfer, and renew his business, a richer and more flourishing man than before. This laxity and facility of the laws of insolvency in America have proved fatal to the reputation of American commercial faith. It is certain that a very large proportion of the bankruptcies in London are occasioned by disappointments of remittances from America.'

REVENUE.—The revenue of the United States arises from the duties on imports and tonnage, and some small taxes. The revenue, in 1808, amounted to 4,000,000*l.* but the national debt, in consequence of the late war with Great Britain, has been increased to upwards of 20,000,000*l.* The following statement of salaries of public offices, and general expences during 1805, when America was at peace, will give some idea of the economical nature of the government. It may, however, be observed, that the late war has altered the political views and situation of the United States; and, in consequence, the public expenditure must in future be greatly increased.

SALARIES OF PUBLIC OFFICERS.

The President.....	<i>Dols.</i> 25,000
The Vice-President	10,000
The Secretary of State.....	5,000
The Secretary of the Treasury.....	5,000
The Secretary of War.....	4,500
The Secretary of the Navy	4,500
The Attorney-General.....	3,000
The Comptroller of the Treasury	3,500
The Treasurer	3,000
The Auditor of the Treasury	3,000
The Register of the Treasury	2,400

The Accountant of the War Department 2,000
 The Accountant of the Navy Department 2,000
 The Post-Master General 3,000
 The Assistant Post-Master General 1,700
 Payable quarterly—to continue for three years from January 1, 1804.

PUBLIC EXPENCES OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR 1805.

	<i>Dols.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
Civil List, including the civil expences of the territory of New Orleans - - - - -	611,911	50
Miscellaneous expences - - -	310,982	31
Intercourse with foreign nations - - -	269,350	
Military establishment - - -	942,992	48
Naval establishment, including 71,340 dollars, 76 cents, as an appropriation for the crew of the frigate Philadelphia - - -	1,240,445	29

ESTIMATE.

Legislature, including stationary, printing, fuel, &c. - - - -	228,565	
Executive, president and vice-president - - - - -	30,000	
Department of State - - - -	27,304	
Treasury department - - - -	73,277	27
War department - - - - -	29,450	
Naval department - - - - -	21,170	
General post-office - - - -	11,360	
Compensations to loan-officers, &c. - - -	26,250	
Surveyor-general department - - -	2,000	
— south of Tennessee - - -	3,200	
Officers of the mint - - - -	10,600	

GOVERNMENTS IN TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Territory of New Orleans - - -	21,240	
Mississippi territory - - - -	5,500	
Indiana territory - - - - -	5,500	
Valuation of lands, &c. - - - -	13,595	23
Miscellaneous - - - - -	2,000	

JUDICIARY.

Chief justice and five associates - - -	21,500	
Nineteen district judges - - - -	26,200	
District of Columbia - - - -	5,200	
Attorney-general - - - - -	3,000	
District attornies - - - - -	3,400	
Marshals - - - - -	1,600	
Expences of courts, &c. - - -	4,600	
Light-house establishment - - -	126,776	52

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ARMY.—A small military force is supported for the preservation of public order and the defence of the frontiers. But a standing army is deemed incompatible with the republican government; and the strength of the states is computed from the militia, which is stated at 930,000. Yet this mode of estimating the effective force of the country is evidently incorrect, and it would seem more agreeable to the usual rules to calculate it at 200,000, a number sufficiently formidable to set foreign invasion at defiance.

The militia is, for the most part, badly disciplined, and generally assemble in the interior parts of the country, merely for the purpose of eating and drinking. In the towns some shew of a military force is kept up by the volunteers, who are fond of captivating the ladies with their smart uniforms and nodding plumes. The late war has, however, shewn the necessity of a larger standing army, which in future may amount to about 6000 men.

NAVY.—The navy of the United States has acquired considerable glory, and risen into consequence, from the skill and courage displayed in the late contest with the greatest maritime power on earth. Though the victories achieved by the American seamen, considering all circumstances, were in no respect wonderful or uncommon, yet they must tend to raise and cherish their maritime spirit, and to accelerate the period when the American fleet will rival any in Europe.

The present naval force of the United States consists of ten frigates, and about ninety sloops and gun brigs; but some of the former are as large as ships of the line, while the latter are, in general, a small despicable craft, of little use except in enforcing the municipal regulations of the government, in the rivers, harbours, and waters of the Union.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE.—‘The political importance of the United States,’ says an eminent writer, ‘will depend, in a great measure, upon the individual character, as the government is not sufficiently strong to use coercion even for the general prosperity. The most impartial travellers have been impressed with regret and astonishment at the spirit of selfishness and avarice, which too universally prevails, and which crushes or impedes every great or noble exertion. If the spirit of a monarchy, according to Montesquieu, be glory, the spirit of a

commonwealth, by the same authority, is virtue. Yet the latter word having become of dubious acceptation, if not entirely obsolete, it might perhaps be argued, from the example of Holland, Switzerland, and the French Directory, not to mention many republics of antiquity, that the spirit of a commonwealth is money; and the exchange is certainly not for the better, as the love of glory, that last infirmity of noble minds, is a principle of the most large and expansive nature; sometimes, as in war, destructive; but at others the source of every memorable exertion of human genius and industry. By the love of money the character becomes degraded, the generous feelings obliterated, the very mind paralysed; while the love of glory, like the vast mechanical force of steam, another vapour, often occasions exertions that seem to surpass human power. Such reflections have unavoidably arisen to travellers otherwise impressed with the deepest veneration for the new commonwealth. It is, however, to be hoped and expected that this character will not, like that of the Jews, become indelible; but that, after the fathers have laid up a sufficient stock of wealth, their posterity will divert their attention to more sublime pursuits. The war with the Indians, which ought to have impressed all America with a deep sense of the power of the states, and which a monarch of common spirit would have terminated in one conflict, appears to have been palsied by individual avarice, and a complete negligence of national reputation. The equipment of a few frigates against France was also a mighty effort; and the sum allotted for six frigates scarcely supplied three. The most candid observer, and even the warmest admirer of the new republic, must allow with regret that its political importance can only be weighed by posterity. It is to be hoped that the climate and soil of America have not that malignant influence over the human mind which has been ascribed to them by some philosophers, and of which they adduce an example in Spanish America, which after the first and second generation has not, in three long centuries, produced one man eminent in any department of peace or war, science or art: but that, on the contrary, the new republic may be distinguished by names which shall rival any of the ancient continent.’

By one of the articles in the treaty of Saint Ildefonso, Spain ceded Louisiana to France, and

as Bonaparte, in consequence of the naval superiority of England, could not obtain the sovereignty over these vast regions, he transferred them to the Americans, whom he also intimidated into a purchase of the Floridas, for which he received two millions of dollars. Previous to these curious purchases, the federal states comprehended a region too extensive for one government; yet the American rulers, actuated by a foolish and ruinous ambition, seem lately to have calculated upon the conquest of the British American provinces. Had their projects succeeded in this quarter, it is not improbable but that the subjugation of Mexico would be next attempted, which events would have accelerated the dissolution of the federal union.

This immensely extended republic is, no doubt, destined to become a great country, whether the federal constitution is perpetuated, or it becomes a commonwealth of independent nations, like Europe. If the population of the United States, including Louisiana and the Floridas, become proportioned only to that of Great Britain, it will contain two hundred and thirty-nine millions of inhabitants!

As considerable differences exist between the manners and politics of the northern and southern states, it has been the opinion of many that the compact could not long subsist. But a disunion would be an unfortunate event for the Americans, and not in any respect conducive to the interests of Great Britain; for commerce would be impeded by the jealousies and wars of the separate governments, while the French would be more likely to obtain a footing to the southward than England would be to the northward. Indeed it is evidently the interest of this country to cherish the peace and prosperity of America; which, for many centuries, must continue to offer an extensive market for manufactured goods.

Historical Geography.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS.—Among the chief historical epochs of the United States must first be classed their respective origins, as before explained. The introduction of tobacco in Virginia, 1616: the intended massacre of the English by a native Wirowanee or chief 1618, and the subsequent war: the abolition of the first charter, 1624: the struggles against the arbitrary disposition of Charles I.: the privileges granted

by that monarch, and the loyalty of the Virginians, who did not acknowledge the commonwealth till 1651: the insurrection of Bacon against the authority of Charles II.; are epochs of Virginian story. The colony in the northern provinces called New England was chiefly founded by the Puritans, and was strengthened by the intolerant spirit of archbishop Laud.—Sectarian subdivisions occasioned new colonies; and the Pequods, a native tribe, were exterminated. The colonies in the south are of more recent foundation, and present still fewer materials for history.

In several systems of geography the original charters and minute events of each state are detailed apart, a plan more reconcileable with topography. The several streams which constitute a large river cannot be delineated in general geography; and far less those provincial epochs which rather belong to a prolix history. It will therefore be sufficient for the present design to commemorate the chief epochs of that contest which terminated in the independence of the United States. The northern colonies of New England had shewn repeated symptoms of their original spirit of opposition to authority. The peace of 1763, after a war of immense expence, was crowned by the cession of Canada, and the consequent annihilation of the French power in North America. Canada was acquired at the price of about fifty times its real value: and the acquisition of Canada was the loss of America: so incapable is human prudence of presaging events, and so often does Providence effect objects by the very means which men employ to avert them! For the colonies were not only thus delivered from constant fear and jealousy of the French, which bound them to the protection of the parent country, but the vast expenditure of that splendid and absurd war occasioned such an increase of taxation, that the country gentlemen of England were easily induced to wish that a part of it might be borne by the colonies.

No sooner, therefore, was peace concluded than the British parliament adopted the plan of taxing the colonies; and, to justify their attempts, declared that the money to be raised was to be appropriated to defray the expence of defending them in the late war. The first attempt to raise a revenue in America appeared in the memorable *stamp act*, passed March 22, 1765, whereby it was enacted, that certain instruments in writing,

ills, bonds, &c. should not be valid in law, unless drawn on stamped paper, on which a duty was laid.

Immediately as the act was published in America it raised a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehensions at an act which they supposed to be an attack on their constitutional rights. The colonies, therefore, petitioned the king and parliament for a redress of the grievance, and at the same time entered into associations for the purpose of preventing the importation and use of British manufactures until the obnoxious act should be repealed.— This spirited and unanimous opposition of the Americans produced the desired effect; and on the 18th of March, 1766, the stamp act was repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with universal joy, and the trade between them and Great Britain was renewed on the most liberal footing.

The parliament, however, by repealing this act, so odious to their American brethren, by no means intended to lay aside the scheme of raising a revenue in the colonies, but merely to alter the mode. Accordingly, the next year they passed an act, imposing a certain duty on glass, tea, paper, and painters' colours; articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured in America. This act, as might reasonably have been expected after what had passed, kindled the resentment of the Americans, and excited a general opposition to the measure, so that parliament thought it advisable, in 1770, to take off these duties, except three-pence a pound on tea. Nevertheless this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealousy of the colonists, and their opposition to parliamentary taxation continued increasing from day to day.

It will be easily conceived that the inconvenience of paying the duty was not the sole nor even the principal cause of the opposition; it was the *principle*, which, once admitted, would have subjected the colonies to unlimited parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being represented. The colonies, therefore, entered into measures for encouraging their own manufactures and home productions, and for retrenching the use of foreign superfluities, while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, and in Massachusetts, the governors and people were in a state of continual warfare. Assemblies were repeatedly called and suddenly dissolved: employing

the time while sitting in stating grievances and framing remonstrances. As if to inflame these discontents, an act of parliament was passed, ordaining, that the governors and judges should receive their salaries of the crown; thus rendering them independent of the provincial assemblies, and removeable only at the pleasure of the king.

In 1773, the spirit of the Americans broke out into open violence. The Gaspee, an armed schooner belonging to his Britannic Majesty, had been stationed at Providence, in Rhode Island, to prevent smuggling. The vigilance of the commander irritated the inhabitants to such a degree, that about 200 armed men boarded the vessel under favour of the night, compelled the officers and crew to go ashore, and set fire to the schooner. A reward of 500*l.* offered by government for apprehending any of the persons concerned in this daring act, produced no effectual discovery.

Nor did the attempt to evade the resolution of the colonies, by introducing teas through the East India Company, succeed. In Massachusetts a party of men, dressed like Indians, boarded the tea ships, and discharged the cargoes into the water. This induced government to shut the port of Boston, and to pass several acts to repress this growing spirit of opposition.

All these steps, however, far from intimidating, rather exasperated the Americans, by confirming them in their former apprehensions of the evil designs of government, and served only to unite the colonies in a more determined opposition. A correspondence of opinion, in respect to these acts, produced an uniformity of proceedings in the colonies. The people generally concurred in the proposition for holding a congress, in order to concert measures for the preservation of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philadelphia on the 26th of October, 1774.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England. This was occasioned by General Gage sending a body of troops to destroy some military stores that were at Concord. They succeeded in their design, but were extremely harassed and forced to a quick retreat. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, in which General Gage and his troops were. In all the

colonies they prepared for war with the utmost dispatch; and a stop was almost every where put to the exportation of provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775, as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the utmost.

In the mean time a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderago and Crown Point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either side; and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boston from England of the Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with considerable reinforcements.

On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. But after this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charlestown neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time the congress appointed George Washington, Esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the last war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces.

During these transactions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to great distress for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and General Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to quit Boston, and embark for Halifax, leaving a considerable quantity of artillery and some stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and General Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the

United Colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, 'Free and independent States;' that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of 'The United States of America.'

An attack upon Charlestown was ably repelled by the Americans under General Lee; but the British, under General Howe and his brother Vice-admiral Lord Howe, compelled the Americans to evacuate Long Island, from whence their retreat was conducted with great address by General Washington. New York was soon after abandoned, several forts were lost, the British troops covered the Jerseys, and the period for service in the American army had expired. This was the crisis of American danger. But their army being recruited by volunteers, Washington, in the night of the 25th of December, 1776, amidst snow, storms, and ice, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of Hessians at Trenton; and while the British were preparing to attack him at this post, he, by a happy stroke of generalship, retreated in the night, carried the British post of Princetown, and resumed his former position.

In September, 1777, after two actions between the armies of General Howe and General Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to Lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderago; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans under

Gates and Arnold, that after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, General Burgoyne and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

After several affairs, by which the animosity of the Americans to the British government was increased, the British army found it necessary to evacuate Philadelphia. General Howe returned to England, and was succeeded in the command of the army by General Clinton. By this time the British ministers began to be alarmed at the fatal tendency of the war; but the congress refused to treat with the commissioners which his majesty sent to settle all disputes, and the war continued with unabated animosity.

The emissaries of France had long been actively employed in forming and widening the breach between America and England; and, in 1778, that country openly espoused the American cause. Shortly after Spain and Holland joined the confederacy, and co-operated with the Americans. In the mean time, Lord Cornwallis gained some advantages in Carolina; but, by a well-concerted scheme, General Washington suddenly surrounded his army, which was obliged to capitulate; and this event may be considered as the closing scene of the continental American war.

The war against the colonies, which had never been popular in Britain, had now become so unsuccessful and expensive, that the government was compelled to listen to the public voice. Accordingly the treaty of peace was signed on the 30th November, 1782; by which the independence of the United States was solemnly acknowledged, after a struggle of seven years; while that between Spain and the United Provinces continued, with some intermissions, for about sixty years: but the profuse expence of modern warfare counterbalances its brevity.

The constitution of the United States having been found imperfect, a new plan was submitted to the several states, and received their approbation. On the 30th of April, 1789, George Washington was inaugurated president of the United States. The firmness with which that illustrious man opposed the insolence and impositions of the venal Directory of France, added much to the glory of his name, and the prosperity of his country.

When Bonaparte, flushed with victory, contemplated the ruin and ultimate subjugation of

Britain, and to effect which declared it in a state of blockade, the British ministry, in retaliation, published certain orders, declaring the ports of France and her dependencies to be blockaded. In this state of things the trade of the United States suffered, by the hostile powers, several vexatious interruptions. Yet the American government shewed a marked partiality to France, and became extremely clamorous against Great Britain, accusing her naval officers of impressing their seamen, whom the latter claimed as British subjects. This dispute, in some instances, occasioned hostilities between the ships of the two powers. In order to avoid the insults, which it was alleged the American flag had suffered, congress passed a non-intercourse act, by which a stop was put to all trade with foreign powers; but this absurd and impolitic measure was, in a short time, abandoned.

After much discussion between the governments of England and the United States, the former revoked the obnoxious orders in council; but before the intelligence of this conciliatory measure reached America, Mr. Maddison, the president, had issued a declaration of war against England, dated the 18th of June, 1812; and circumstances appeared so favourable to success, that he persisted in his resolution to try the fortune of war.

The Americans commenced the war by fitting out a great number of privateers, and sending an army to invade Canada. But as the Canadians refused to listen to the revolutionary proclamation of the American general Hule, he was obliged to surrender with his whole army. Various other attempts were made by the Americans upon Canada, in which the superior discipline and tactics of the English soldiery compensated for want of numbers, and ensured the defeat of the invaders, who were also much incommoded by the Indians, that had for some time been in a state of warfare with the United States. The spirit of the Americans was, however, supported by some successes which their ships obtained over the British, in which they certainly displayed the skill and gallantry of their progenitors.

The war lingered for some time, until the peace of Paris placed a strong body of veterans at the disposal of the English ministry. The British ships of war now blockaded the ports of the United States, kept the whole coast in con-

tinual alarm, sailed up the Chesapeake and Delaware, imposed contributions upon several towns, and even penetrated to Washington, the seat of government. On the lakes, and in Canada, the affairs of the Americans also wore a gloomy aspect, while the finances sunk into a state of alarming derangement. But this war, so hurtful to both countries, was happily terminated by a treaty of peace, signed by the English and American commissioners at Ghent.—But before the signing of this treaty was known in America, a strong body of English troops made an unsuccessful attack upon New Orleans, and suffered great loss.

Islands.

The chief islands belonging to the United States are Long Island, and a few insular stripes of land near the shores of North Carolina. The province called Rhode Island is continental, with two or three small islands attached: Rhode Island, which gives name to the state, is about thirteen miles in length, by four in breadth, with a considerable town called Newport; and, before the war, was a beautiful and highly cultivated district. The others, scattered along the coast, and in the various bays and lakes, are of little consequence.

THE SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOUNDARIES. **T**HE Spanish dominions in North America are more important, in every respect, than those they hold in the southern half of the new continent. Yet jealousy of the English, and recently of the government of the United States, has long prevented any precise intelligence respecting these regions from appearing. Recourse, therefore, must unavoidably be had to authorities which might, in any other case, be deemed imperfect, dubious, or antiquated.

In estimating the extent of these large and flourishing possessions, it will be necessary, in the first place, to consider the boundaries. That towards the south-east is decidedly the eastern boundary of Veragua, the last province of North America; consisting, according to Lopez, of a ridge, as already mentioned, called Sierras de Canatagua. Towards the north the Spaniards do not readily assent to a boundary: they, in fact, claim the whole north-west of America, pretending a prior right of discovery to the English, or any other nation; and appoint a Governor of New California, by which name they imply all the north-west coast of America. On the west the English specially

claim the port of Sir Francis Drake; and mark the Spanish boundary at Fort St. Francisco, to the north of the town of Monterey. Upon the whole the sources of the Rio Bravo may be assumed as a medial boundary, as there are several small Spanish settlements to the north of Santa Fe, that is about lat. 39 deg. 30 min. while the southern boundary is about lat. 7 deg. 30 min.: hence a length of thirty-two degrees, or 1920 geographical miles. But the breadth little corresponds to this prodigious length of territory. The narrowest part of the Isthmus in Veragua is not above twenty-five British miles: in general the medial breadth can scarcely be computed at more than 400 geographical miles.

Of this wide empire the chief part is distinguished by the name of MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN; the provinces, in ascending from the south to the north, being Veragua, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras (with the Mosquito shore claimed by the English), Guatemala and Verapaz, Chiapa, Tabasco, and the peninsula of Yucatan, Guaxaca, Mexico proper, including subdivisions: with New Galicia, Biscay, and Leon. What is called the empire of Mexico

was in truth only a moderate kingdom; about 600 miles in length, by 140 in breadth. Nay the republic of Tlascala was within sixty miles of the capital.

The provinces further to the north are Cinaloa and others on the gulf of California, with that large Chersonese itself: New Mexico includes the most northern central settlements on the Rio Bravo; while, towards the east, Louisiana, and the two Floridas, complete the chief denominations. But the great divisions are properly only four: 1. LOUISIANA. 2. The two FLORIDAS. 3. NEW MEXICO, which contains Coaguilla, New Estremadura, Sonora, Taxos, New Navarre. 4. MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN, which includes the other provinces, and seems to extend to the river of Hiaqui, but the boundaries between Old and New Mexico do not seem to be indicated with any degree of precision.

As neither the cession of Louisiana nor the Floridas to America has been acknowledged by Spain, the description of these provinces may properly be included in this place.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.—In Florida, chiefly consisting of low grounds, the climate is insalubrious in the summer, when there is a kind of *mal aria* as in Italy; but the winters are mild and healthy. The climate of Louisiana is cold in the northern parts. In California epidemical distempers seem to be frequent; but the country has not been sufficiently examined by scientific observers. Moisture seems to predominate in the Isthmus; but not to such a degree as in the South American province of Darien, where it may be said to rain for nine months in the year. The rains, however, temper the extreme heat, which would otherwise predominate in this climate. Violent storms are not unfrequent, and sometimes the lightning seems to rise from the ground. The maritime districts of Mexico are, however, hot and unhealthy, so as to occasion much perspiration even in January. The inland mountains, on the contrary, will sometimes present white frost and ice in the dog days. In other inland provinces the climate is mild and benign, with some momentary snow in winter; but no artificial warmth is found necessary, and animals sleep all the year under the open sky. There are plentiful rains, generally after mid-day, from April till September, and hail-storms are not unknown. Thunder is frequent; and the

earthquakes and volcanoes are additional circumstances of terror.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—The face of the country is rather mountainous than plain, except towards the shores; but the mountains are interspersed with delightful vales, and the soil is generally fertile. In the northern provinces of Louisiana and Florida, the soil corresponds with that of Georgia, and the western settlements of the United States. Concerning New Mexico and California there is little minute and authentic information; but the testimony of La Perouse is greatly in favour of the latter.

RIVERS.—The streams in the Isthmus are of a short course, and little remarkable in any respect. The principal river of Spanish North America is, beyond all comparison, the Rio Bravo, called also del Norte, or of the northern star. The course of this important river, so far as its sources can yet be conjectured, may be about 1000 British miles; but its whole circuit probably exceeds that of the Danube. The nature of the shores, and the various appearances and qualities of the waters, have not been illustrated.

Next in consequence would seem to be the Rio Colorado, on the east of the Bravo, whose comparative course may be about 700 British miles. Towards the west is a large river which flows into the Vermillion Sea, or gulf of California, also called by D'Anville *Colorado*, with the addition *de los Martyres*; but the main stream seems rather to be the *Rio Grande de los Apostolos*, barbarous appellations imposed by the Jesuits who had settlements in California. The course of this river may be computed at 600 British miles. Among the rivers of the Isthmus may be mentioned those of Palmas, of Panuco, Tabasco, Sumasinta, St. Juan, all flowing into the gulf of Mexico. Those which join the Pacific seem mere rivulets; till, in the vicinity of Mexico, the mountains rather tend to the east, and the streams of Yopez, and Zacatula, join the Pacific Ocean. That of Guadalupe rises to the west of Mexico; and being considered as passing through the lake of Chapala will thus join the Pacific after a comparative course of 350 British miles.

LAKES.—The chief lake in Spanish North America, so far as yet explored, is that of Nicaragua, which is about 170 British miles in length, north-west to south-east, and about half that breadth. This grand lake is situated in

the province of the same name towards the south of the Isthmus, and has a great outlet, the river of St. Juan, to the gulf of Mexico, while a smaller stream is by some supposed to flow into the Pacific. In the hands of an enterprising people this lake would supply the long wished for passage, from the Atlantic into the Pacific, and in the most direct course that could be desired. Nature has already supplied half the means; and it is probable that a complete passage might have been opened, at half the expence wasted in fruitless expeditions to discover such a passage by the north-west, or the north-east. This speculation must depend on circumstances; but if a passage were once opened, the force of the ocean would probably enlarge it; and a tribute at this new sound would be a considerable source of revenue.—Among the more northern lakes that of Mexico is not only celebrated, but of considerable extent, being, according to the best maps, more than thirty British miles in length, north to south, if the port called Chalco be included. Towards the west in this part, where the Isthmus begins to enlarge, there are several lakes, the principal being that of Chapala, which is about sixty British miles in length by twenty in breadth. The north-western parts have been little explored, but probably contain some lakes of considerable extent. In West Florida are the lagoons of Ponchatrain and Maurepas; and in East Florida the lakes of Mayaco and George, with others of smaller note.

MOUNTAINS.—The whole of the Spanish territories in North America may be regarded as mountainous. The grand chain of the Andes seems to terminate, as already mentioned, on the west of the gulf of Darien in South America, but by others is supposed to extend to the lake of Nicaragua. Even this extension would totally differ in its direction from the Andean range, as bending north-west, then south-west, then again north-west, so that the main range seems here lost, or passes through the Caribbean sea in the isles of Mosquitos and others towards Jamaica; while the mountains in the south of the Isthmus, as far as the lake of Nicaragua, must be regarded as only a branch, declining much in height, till it finally expire at that lake. In this point of view the ranges passing from north to south must be regarded as spurs of the main chain; but as on the one hand orology is confounded by minute and various ap-

pellations given to portions of the same range, so it may be equally perplexed by too extensive appellations; which, as in the case of the Taurus of the ancients, can only impart confused and erroneous ideas. The Mexican mountains seem to consist of gneiss, granite, &c. while the grand chain of the Andes has a most peculiar character, being composed of argillaceous schistus. It has already been observed that the ridge of Canatagua passes north and south, between the provinces of Veragua and Panama. It is followed in the former province by the range called Urraca, and the volcano of Varu; and by several ridges in Costa Rica.

To the north of the lake of Nicaragua the main ridges often pass east and west; and the Sierra of Yucatan north-east. The chief summit of Nicaragua seems to be the Mamatombo. The volcano of Guitimala raged furiously during the earthquakes which ruined that great city in 1773. In the ancient kingdom of Mexico, which extended from near the lake of Chapala in the north, to Chiapa on the river Tabasco in the south, the summits rise to great height, as being the central parts of a range wholly unconnected with the Andes. Their direction has not been laid down with care or intelligence, more attention having been paid to the numerous volcanoes, than to other grand features. D'Auteroche observes that the mountain of Orisaba is said to be the highest in Mexico; and its snowy summit is visible from the capital, a distance of sixty miles. This celebrated mountain is to the south-east of Mexico, not far from the road to Vera Cruz: it became volcanic in 1545, and continued for twenty years; since which time there has been no appearance of inflammation. Though the summit be clothed with perpetual snow, the sides are adorned with beautiful forests of cedars, pines, and other trees. The detached mountains called by the Mexicans Popocatepec, and Iztacihuatl, are also to the south-east of the capital, at about thirty miles distance, both being volcanic. The crater of the former is said to be half a mile wide, and celebrated for ancient eruptions.—Both are covered with perpetual snow. There are many other volcanoes in this singular province; while others are only remarkable for height, as the mountain of Tlascala, the Tentzon, Toloccam, and others; the range now extending in a north-west direction towards Cinaloa, and being called the Sierra Mada, or

Mother range, and the Shining Mountains. It is afterwards, according to the best maps, joined by a ridge running north-west from Louisiana; and after this junction passes through the north-west to the proximity of the arctic ocean, while the centre of North America consists of extensive and fertile plains.

The construction of the Mexican mountains has not been examined by any geologist.—Among the substances basalt seems clearly indicated; and some others will be mentioned in the mineralogy. There are numerous forests on the sides of the mountains; and the peninsula of Yucatan is particularly abundant in logwood trees.

BOTANY.—One of the numerous desiderata of topographical botany is a scientific account of the native plants that grow in the Spanish North American territory west of the Mississippi. We know in general that it is extremely rich in its vegetable productions, but are obliged to infer the particulars from the articles of commercial export from the Mexican harbours, and the short list given by Cavanilles of the Mexican plants cultivated in Spain.

Such of the trees and plants of Louisiana as we are acquainted with, are for the most part inhabitants also of the United States, and have been already noticed. The similarity, therefore, of these, and the deficiency of information concerning the rest, prevent us from giving any thing more than a very few fragments of the botany of a country which, by its extent and climate, is well worthy of minute investigation.

The plants that characterize the North American possessions of the Spanish crown are cactus cochenilifer, a species of the Indian fig, upon which the cochineal insect more particularly delights to feed: convolvulus jalapa, the true jalap, a native of the province of Xalappa, in the viceroyalty of Mexico; copaifera officinalis and toluifera balsamum, two trees that yield the fragrant gum resins known in commerce by the names of balsam of Capavi and of Tolu.—The shores of the bays of Honduras and Campechy have been celebrated from their very first discovery for their immense forests of mahogany and logwood; and the neighbourhood of Guatemala is distinguished for its indigo. The guayacum, the sassafras and tamarind, the cocoa nut palm, the chocolate nut tree, and a variety of others, which are better known as natives of the West Indian islands, enrich and

adorn these fertile provinces. The pine apple grows wild in the woods, and the shallow rocky soils are inhabited by the various species of aloe and euphorbia. A few Mexican plants have been introduced into European gardens, among which may be noticed the salvia fulgens, glowing with its crimson blossoms, the splendid dahlia, the elegant striated sisyrinchium, the gigantic helianthus, and the delicate mentzelia.

ZOOLOGY.—The zoology has been ably illustrated by Hernandez, styled the Pliny of New Spain, who flourished in the middle of the seventeenth century. The variety of animals is great, though it do not equal that of the plants and minerals. Among the most singular animals is the Mexican or hunchback dog, a kind of porcupine; and some others described by several naturalists. What is called the tiger seems a species of panther, and sometimes grows to a great size, though Buffon, ever fond of theory, assert that American animals are generally small. In South America it attains the length of a large ox, as appears from the testimony of Dobrizhoffer; but Clavigero says that the largest quadruped is the Danta, Anta, or Tapir, about the size of a middling mule, being amphibious.—This animal seems to be different from the Lanta or Danta of Africa, described by Leo; but the identity of the name tends to corroborate the idea that America was peopled from Africa. The bison is found in New Mexico; and the musk cattle may perhaps extend as far. In California there are said to be wild sheep. The birds of New Spain are particularly numerous and curious.

MINERALOGY.—The mineralogy of the Spanish empire in North America is equal, if not superior, to that of Peru, and the other southern provinces. Even in the northern parts nature has disclosed her treasures: the abundance of gold found in the province of Sonora has been already mentioned; and California is supposed to contain rich minerals. The silver mines in New Spain, though they do not contend with Potosi, have long maintained great celebrity. Those of Sacotecas, or Zacatecas, are particularly distinguished. The produce of the Mexican mines has by some been computed at ten millions yearly; but the whole amount of the American mines probably does not exceed seven millions and a half; of which it cannot be supposed that North America produces more than two thirds. The ancient Mexicans found

gold in many of their rivers; and silver was dug up, but little esteemed. The chief silver mines are now to the north-west of the capital, where there is a town called Luis de Potosi, more than 200 British miles from Mexico.—These mines are said to have been discovered soon after those of Potosi, 1545: they are in a considerable range of mountains, which give source to the river of Panuco. Concerning the nature of these mines, and the manner of working them, the Spanish writers seem to be silent.

Copper is said to abound in some districts to the west of the capital; and tin is also mentioned among the Mexican minerals. Mercury is likewise reported to have been found in Mexico, and there was a celebrated mine in Peru; but both seem to be now exhausted, as the chief supply is from Spain. Amber and asphalt likewise occur in New Spain: and among the precious stones a few diamonds, with amethysts and turquoises, but the list is imperfect, and perhaps erroneous. The mountains also produce jasper, marble, alabaster, magnet, steatite, jad, talc. The stone called *tetzontli*, red and porous, was used in building, being perhaps a kind of tufa. The *itzli* is semi-transparent, of a glassy substance, and generally black, but also found white and blue: it was used in mirrors; and also for sharp instruments, being the same called *pietra del Galinazzo* in South America, the obsidian or volcanic glass of modern mineralogy.

MINERAL WATERS.—There are several mineral waters of various qualities, sulphureous, vitriolic, and aluminous; and some springs of great heat, but none seem particularly distinguished.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—Besides the volcanoes there are many natural curiosities, one of the most remarkable being the Ponte de Dios, or Bridge of God, resembling the natural bridge in the territory of the United States. It is about one hundred miles south-east from Mexico, near the village of Molcaxac, over a deep river called the Aquetoyaque, and is constantly passed as a highway; but it seems uncertain whether the river have worn the passage through a rocky mountain, or the fragment be part of a fallen hill detached by an earthquake. There are many romantic cataracts, among which must be mentioned those of the river Guadalaxara, between the city of the same name and the lake of Chapala. The floating gardens in the lake

of Mexico were artificial curiosities, the bottom being formed of intertwisted willows.

Civil Geography.

POPULATION.—The population of all the Spanish provinces in North America has been estimated at little more than seven millions; of whom the natives, called Indians, are supposed to amount to four millions; and the Spaniards and inhabitants of mixed races are computed at three millions, of which the Spaniards may constitute one third. This calculation is, however, considered as liberal. The small-pox is remarkably fatal; and the black vomit, which is allied to the yellow fever of the United States, acts at intervals with the ravages of a pestilence. The number of priests, monks, and nuns, is also injurious to population; which, however, appears upon the whole to have greatly increased.

The population of America, before the European conquest, appears to have been greatly exaggerated, as usual in every case of the like nature; and from rough calculations, offered even by classical authors, perhaps four fifths may be always deducted. That this is the case at least with the discoverers of new countries, may be judged from our own enlightened times, in which the English voyagers to Otaheite supposed the inhabitants to exceed one hundred thousand, when, upon actual enumeration, there were found little more than sixteen thousand. It is probable that when America was discovered, the whole population, including the West Indies, did not exceed four millions.—Besides the usual mistakes, there was an additional source of exaggeration, as the Spanish conquerors, like knights-errant, counted hundreds by thousands; and the oriental vein of hyperbole, introduced by the Moors, has tainted the early Spanish authors. If we allow that a hundred or two of Europeans could subvert a mighty American empire, we must imagine that its armies were small, as well as cowardly and unskillful.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—For hospitality, generosity, docility, and sobriety, the people of New Spain exceed any nation perhaps on the globe: but in national energy, or patriotism, enterprise of character, and independence of soul, they are perhaps the most deficient. Yet there are men who have displayed bravery to a

surprising degree, and the Europeans who are there, cherish with delight the idea of their gallant ancestry. Their women have black eyes and hair, fine teeth, and are generally brunettes. They are all inclining a little to *en-bon-point*, but none, or few, are elegant figures. Their dresses are generally short jackets and petticoats, and high-heel shoes, without any head dress; over this they have a silk wrapper which they always wear, and when in the presence of men affect to bring it over their faces; but near the Atlantic and the frontiers of the United States, there are several ladies who wear the gowns used in France and England, which they conceive to be more elegant than their ancient custom. The lower class of the men are generally dressed in broad brimmed hats, short coats, large waistcoats and small clothes, always open at the knees, owing to the greater freedom it gives to the limbs on horseback, a kind of leather boot or wrapper bound round the leg. The boot is of a soft pliable leather, but not coloured. In the eastern provinces the dragoons wear over this wrapper a sort of jack-boot made of seal leather, to which are fastened the spurs by a rivet, the gaffs of which are sometimes near an inch in length. But the spurs of the gentlemen and officers, although clumsy to our ideas, are frequently ornamented with raised silver work on the shoulders, and the strap embroidered with silver and gold thread. They are always ready to mount their horses, on which the inhabitants of the internal provinces spend nearly half the day. This description will apply generally for the dress of all the men of the provinces for the lower class, but in the towns, amongst the more fashionable ranks, they dress after the European or United States mode, with not more distinction than we see in our cities from one six months to another. Both men and women have remarkably fine hair, and pride themselves in the display of it.

Their amusements are music, singing, dancing, and gambling; the latter is strictly prohibited, but the prohibition is not much attended to. The dance of — is performed by one man and two women, who beat time to the music, which is soft and voluptuous, but sometimes changes to a lively gay air, while the dancers occasionally exhibit the most indelicate gestures. The whole of this dance is calculated to impress a stranger with the idea of an insulated society of once civilised beings, but now degenerated into

a medium state, between the improved world and the children of nature. The fandango is danced in various figures and numbers. The minuet is still danced by the superior class only; the music made use of is the guitar, violin, and singers, who in the first described dance, accompany the music with their hands and voices, having always some words adapted to the music, which are generally of such a tendency as would, in Europe, occasion every lady to leave the room.

Their games are cards, billiards, horse-racing, and cock-fighting, the first and last of which are carried to the most extravagant lengths, the parties losing and winning immense sums. The present commandant-general is very severe with his officers in these respects, frequently sending them to some frontier post, in confinement for months, for no other fault than having lost large sums at play.

At every town of consequence is a public walk, where the ladies and gentlemen meet and sing songs, which are always on the subject of love, or the social board. The females have fine voices, and sing in French, Italian, and Spanish, the whole company joining in the chorus. In their houses the ladies play on the guitar, and generally accompany it with their voices. They either sit down on the carpet cross-legged, or loll on a sofa. To sit upright in a chair appears to put them to great inconvenience; and although the better class will sometimes do it on the first introduction of strangers, they soon demand liberty to follow their old habits. In their eating and drinking they are remarkably temperate. Early in the morning you receive a dish of chocolate and a cake; at twelve you dine on several dishes of meat, fowls, and fish; after which you have a variety of confectionary, and indeed an elegant dessert: then drink a few glasses of wine, sing a few songs, and retire to take the siesta, or afternoon nap, which is done by rich and poor; and about two o'clock the windows and doors are all closed, the streets deserted, and the stillness of midnight reigns throughout. About four o'clock they rise, wash, and dress, and prepare for the dissipation of the night. About eleven o'clock some refreshments are offered, but few take any, except a little wine and water, and a little candied sugar.

The government have multiplied the difficulties for Europeans mixing with the Creoles,

or Mestis, to such a degree, that it is difficult for a marriage to take place. An officer wishing to marry a lady not from Europe, is obliged to acquire certificates of the purity of her descent for two hundred years back, and transmit them to the court, when the license will be returned; but should she be the daughter of a person of the rank of captain or upwards, this nicety vanishes, as their rank purifies the blood of the descendants.

The general subjects of the conversation of the men are women, money, and horses, which appear to be the only objects, in their estimation, worthy of consideration. Having united the female sex with their money and their beasts, and treated them too much after the manner of the latter, they have eradicated from their breasts every sentiment of virtue, or of ambition to pursue the acquirements which would make them amiable companions, instructive mothers, or respectable members of society. Their whole souls, with a few exceptions, like the Turkish ladies, are taken up in music, dress, and the little blandishments of voluptuous dissipation. Finding that the men only require these as objects of gratification to the sensual passions, they have lost every idea of the feast of reason and the flow of soul which arise from the intercourse of two refined and virtuous minds, whose inmost thoughts are open to the inspection and admiration of each other, and whose refinements of sentiment heighten the pleasures of every gratification.

Such is the character of the Spaniards in North America, as given by a recent traveller in that country. Those of the ancient Mexicans have been described by many authors, but a few singularities may be here mentioned. A peculiar feature of the Mexican language was, that a termination indicating respect might be added to every word. Thus in speaking to an equal, the word father was *tatl*, but to a superior *tatzin*. They had also reverential verbs, as appears from Aldama's Mexican grammar. Thus, as cowards are always cruel, the most ferocious people in the world were at the same time, also the most servile and obsequious.— Their wars were constant, and sanguinary; and their manners, in general, corresponded with this barbarous disposition: the principal warriors covering themselves with the skins of the sacrificed victims, and dancing through the streets. The dress was a loose cloak, and a

sash girt round the naked waist. From the ancient paintings it appears that the under lip was pierced to receive an ornament of gold. This custom La Perouse and others have observed on the north-west coast of America.— The year was divided into eighteen months, each of twenty days; and five days were added, which were dedicated to festivity. They cultivated maize and some roots; but their agriculture was rude, and they were strangers to the use of money. On the death of a chief, a great number of his attendants were sacrificed.

LANGUAGE.—Of the Mexican language grammars and dictionaries have been published in the country; and from the few specimens contained in European publications it appears to differ radically from the Peruvian. The words frequently end in *tl*; and are besides of a surprising and unpronounceable length, resembling in this respect the language of the savages in North America, and some of the African dialects; but strongly contrasted with those of Asia, in which the most polished, as the Chinese, are monosyllabic. According to Clavigero the Mexican tongue wants the consonants *b, t, f, g, r, and s*; in which respect only, though unobserved by that author, it strictly coincides with the Peruvian; except that the latter, instead of the *s*, is said to want the *z*, a mere difference of enunciation. But the Peruvian is a far superior and more pleasing language, though some modifications of the verbs be of extreme length. The wild enthusiasm of Clavigero compares the Mexican with the Latin and Greek; though as like, as he to Herodotus. Some of the words are of sixteen syllables. Their poetry consisted of hymns, and of heroic and amatory ballads. They had also a kind of dramas; but from the specimen produced they do not seem to have been superior to those of Otaheite.

EDUCATION.—There are several laudable institutions in the Spanish settlements for the education of the natives, and some colleges or universities; but the fanatical spirit of the instructors renders such foundations of little value.

CITIES.—The chief city of New Spain, and all Spanish America, is Mexico, celebrated for the singularity of its situation. In a beautiful vale surrounded with mountains the lake of Tezcuco is joined on the south to that of Chalco by a strait, on the west side of a tongue of land, the whole circuit of these lakes being

about ninety miles. In a small isle to the north of this junction, and upon the west side of Tezcuco, rose the old city of Mexico, accessible by several causias raised in the shallow waters, but on the east side there was no communication except by canoes. It is said by Robertson, from recent Spanish documents, to contain 150,000 inhabitants; of which probably a third part is Spanish. The most recent account of this remarkable city seems to be that given by Chappe D'Auteroche, who visited it in 1769, and informs us that it is built upon a fen, near the banks of a lake, and crossed by numerous canals, the houses being all founded on piles. Hence it would seem that the waters of the lake have diminished, so as to leave a fenny access on the west. The ground still yields in many places; and some buildings, as the cathedral, have sunk six feet. The streets are wide and straight, but very dirty; and the houses, resembling those in Spain, are tolerably built. The chief edifice is the viceroy's palace, which stands near the cathedral in a central square, but is rather solid than elegant. Behind the palace is the mint, in which more than a hundred workmen are employed, as the owners of the mines here exchange their bullion for coin. The other chief buildings are the churches, chapels, and convents, which are very numerous, and richly ornamented. The outside of the cathedral is unfinished, as they doubt the foundations; but the rail round the high altar is of solid silver, and there is a silver lamp so capacious that three men can get in to clean it; while it is also enriched with lion's heads, and other ornaments, in pure gold. The images of the virgin, and other saints, are either solid silver, or covered with gold and precious stones. Besides the great central square there are two others, each with a fountain in the middle. 'To the north of the town, near the suburbs, is the public walk, or *Alameda*. A rivulet runs all round it, and forms a pretty large square, with a bason and *jet d'eau* in the middle. Eight walks, with each two rows of trees, terminate at this bason, like a star, but as the soil of Mexico is unfit for trees they are not in a very thriving condition. This is the only walk in or near to Mexico; all the country about it is swampy ground, and full of canals. A few paces off, and facing the *Alameda*, is the *Quemadero*; that is the place where they burn the Jews, and other unhappy

victims of the awful tribunal of inquisition.—The *Quemadero* is an enclosure between four walls, and filled with ovens, into which are thrown over the walls the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive; condemned by judges professing a religion whose first precept is charity.' The Spanish inhabitants are commonly clothed in silk, their hats being adorned with belts of gold and roses of diamonds; for even the slaves have bracelets and necklaces of gold, silver, pearls, and gems. The ladies are distinguished for beauty and gallantry. Mexico, though inland, is the seat of vast commerce between Vera Cruz on the east, and Acapulco on the west; and the shops display a profusion of gold, silver, and jewels. In magnificent regularity it yields to few cities even on the ancient continent. Gage, whose authority is used by the most recent writers of all countries in the defect of other materials, says that in his time, 1640, there were supposed to be fifteen thousand coaches, some of them adorned with gold and gems; the people being so rich that it was supposed that one half of the families kept equipages.

Santa Fe.—Santa Fe, the capital of New Mexico, is situated on a small stream which empties into the Rio del Norte, on the eastern side, at the foot of the mountains which divide the waters of that river from the Arkansaw and Red rivers of the Mississippi, in 36 deg. north latitude and 109 deg. west longitude. It is of a long rectangular form, extending about one mile from east to west on the banks of the creek. In the centre is the public square, one side of which forms the flank of the soldiers' square, which is closed, and in some degree defended by round towers in the angles which flank the curtains; another side of the square is formed by the palace of the governor, his guard houses, &c.; another is occupied by the priests and their suite; and the fourth by the chapitones, who reside in the city. The houses are generally only one story high with flat roofs, and have a very mean appearance on the outside, but some of them are richly furnished, especially with plate. The population is estimated at three thousand six hundred.

Acapulco.—Acapulco was a celebrated port on the south of Mexico, engrossing the chief Indian trade over the Pacific; while Carthagena, in South America, on the Caribbean sea, was a centre of European traffic. Both were

in unhealthy situations, as Mexico itself; for by a fatal error the Spaniards, Dutch, and other Europeans, have in Asia and America founded cities on plains, in imitation of those in their own countries, while high situations ought to have been selected.

Mechoacan is a fair commercial town; and Merida, the capital of the peninsula of Yucatan, is a bishoprick, and the residence of the governor of the province. Old Vera Cruz was burnt by the buccaneers, and a more advantageous position selected for the new city. It contains one church and three monasteries, and is enclosed with ruinous fortifications: lying to the south-east of Mexico, and the common port for European goods, where a Spanish fleet used to arrive every two years, taking in return silver and other treasures. On the north are barren sands, and on the west bogs, that have been drained. Guaxaca exports excellent wool and perfumes. St. Leon and Granada are both situated on the large lake of Nicaragua, where the chain of the Andes is supposed to terminate, even by those who carry its extension to the utmost limit. Even the inferior cities contain, as Robertson observes, a superior population to those of any other European nations in America, that of Angelos being computed at 60,000; and of Guadalaxara 30,000, exclusive of Indians.

EDIFICES.—The chief edifices are the cathedrals, churches, and convents, as may be expected where the clergy are so predominant, that civil architecture, and civil affairs, are almost entirely neglected. Part of what may be called the high European road, from Vera Cruz to Mexico, is tolerably smooth and pleasant; but the others are probably neglected, and in so mountainous a country they are rough and precipitous. Inland navigations seem unknown, and are perhaps unnecessary.

TRADE, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE.—The trade and commerce of New Spain are carried on with Europe and the United States by the port of Vera Cruz solely, and with the East Indies and South America by Acapulco, and even then under such restrictions of productions, manufactures, and time, as to render it almost of no consequence as to the general prosperity of the country. Were all the numerous bays and harbours of the gulf of Mexico and California opened to the trade of the world, and a general license given to the culti-

vation of all the productions which the country is capable of yielding, with freedom of exportation and importation, with proper duties on foreign goods, the country would immediately become rich and powerful, a proper stimulus would be held out to the poor to labour, when certain of finding a quick and ready sale for the productions of their plantations or manufactories. The country abounds in iron ore, yet all the iron and steel, and articles of manufactures, are obliged to be brought from Europe, the manufacturing or working of iron being strictly prohibited. This occasions the necessary utensils of husbandry, arms, and tools, to be enormously high, and forms a great check to agriculture, improvements in manufactures, and military skill. The works of the Mexicans in gold, silver, and painting, shew them not to be destitute of genius, which, with cultivation and improvement, might rival the greatest masters of either ancient or modern schools. Their dispositions and habits are peculiarly calculated for sedentary employments, and there is no doubt, if proper establishments were made, they would soon rival, if not surpass, the most extensive woollen, cotton, or silk manufactures of Europe. Their climate is adapted for raising the finest cotton in the world; and their shee possess all the fineness of wool, for which it are so celebrated in Spain. Besides this, it have immense quantities of raw materials, which they have on hand, wool selling for a mere trifle, and in fact they scarcely take the half from the fleece of the sheep for the coarse manufactures of the country, and for making beds.

New Spain is, in fact, singularly distinguished by the multitude and variety of its productions, in all the three great reigns of nature, animal, vegetable, and mineral; and this abundance of natural productions perhaps contributes to the neglect of manufactures. Even metallurgy is but poorly conducted. Cochineal and cocoa, with a little silk and cotton, form articles of export; but the chief are gold, silver, and precious stones. There was a celebrated fair at Acapulco, on the annual arrival of the ships from Peru and Chili; after which the noted galleon, laden with the wealth of America, pursued her course to Manilla. Other arrangements are now followed, and smaller vessels employed. The galleons were laid aside in 1748; and the late Spanish monarch instituted commercial regulations on a more liberal plan. In 1764 monthly

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kets were established between Corugna and Havanna, whence smaller vessels pass to Vera Cruz, and to Portobello in South America; and an interchange of productions by these vessels is also permitted. In the following year the trade to Cuba was laid open to all Spain; and the privilege was afterwards extended to Louisiana, and the provinces of Yucatan and Campechy. In 1774 free intercourse was permitted between the three viceroalties of Mexico, Peru, and New Granada. The courts of justice were also reformed, and a fourth viceroyalty was established, 1776, on Rio de la Plata. By a singular policy a free trade is permitted between New Spain and the Philippines, which adds considerably to the wealth of the former country. The English trade in the bay of Honduras may now be considered as terminated, the logwood on the opposite side of Yucatan being found to be of superior quality.

Political Geography.

RELIGION.—The religion of the Spanish settlers in these provinces is well known to be the Roman Catholic, and of such a sort as greatly to impede industry or prosperity, for it is computed that one fifth part of the Spaniards consists of ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns; and that country must be miserably defective in which the jesuits were of distinguished industry. The establishment of the inquisition, and the strange fanaticism of the Spaniards, who disgrace the European name, have not only crushed all spirit of exertion, but have prevented the admixture of other Europeans, whose industry might improve their settlements, and whose courage might defend them.

New Spain is divided into four archbishopricks, viz. Mexico, Guadalaxara, Durango, and St. Luis Potosi; under these again are the, sub-bishopricks, deacons, curates, &c. each of whom is subject and accountable to his immediate chiefs for the districts committed to his charge, and the whole are again subject to the ordinances of the high court of inquisition, held at the capital of Mexico. 'The salaries of the archbishops,' observes a late writer, 'are superior to those of other officers, that of the bishop of Mexico being estimated at one hundred and fifty thousand dollars per annum, while the viceroy has but eighty thousand, and fifty thousand allowed for

his table, falling short of the bishop twenty thousand dollars. These incomes are raised entirely from the people, who pay no tax to the king, but give one tenth of their yearly income to the clergy; besides the fees of confessions, bulls, burials, baptisms, marriages, and a thousand other sources. The inferior clergy being generally Creoles by birth, and always kept in subordinate grades, without the least shadow of a probability of rising to the superior dignities of the church, their minds have been soured to such a degree, that they will probably lead the van whenever the standard of independence is raised in the country.'

The religion of the ancient Mexicans appears to have been chiefly founded on fear, the temples being decorated with the figures of destructive animals: and fasts, penances, voluntary wounds, and tortures, formed the essence of their rites. Human sacrifices were deemed the most acceptable; and every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured and sacrificed. The heart and head were the portion of the gods; while the body was resigned to the captor, who, with his friends, feasted upon it. The extinction of such a ferocious people may not be worthy of much regret: but modern philosophy is apt to decide on a slight and imperfect view.

Thus, instead of a benevolent deity, the worship of the Mexicans may be said to have been directed to the evil principle of some oriental nations, whom all their efforts were stretched to appease. In the Mexican language *Tcoatl* was a general term for any divinity; and in obscure theory they believed in a creator whom they styled *Ipalnemouani*, that is, 'he by whom we live;' but their supreme deity was rather that evil spirit called *Klacatecolotl*, or the *rational owl*, whose delight was to injure and terrify. They believed in the immortality of the soul, and a kind of transmigration; the good being transformed into birds, and the bad into creeping animals. The principal deities were thirteen in number, among whom were the sun and moon; and *Tlaloc*, the god of water, was the master of paradise; but *Mexilti*, the god of war, received the chief adoration. There were other gods of the mountains, of commerce, &c. and the idols, rudely formed of clay, wood, or stone, sometimes decorated with gems and gold, were numerous. One was composed of certain seeds, pasted together with human blood. The

priests wore a black cotton mantle, like a veil; and there seem to have been orders of monks, as among the eastern nations of Asia. The austerities and voluntary wounds of the priests, their poisonous ointments, and other abominable rites, even as related by Clavigero, evince that the entire system was the most execrable that has ever appeared on the face of the earth, alike blasphemous to God and pernicious to man. The whole is so totally unlike any system ever practised in any part of Asia, that there is additional cause to believe that the people were either indigeneal, or have proceeded from Africa, in which alone (as among the Gias) such cruelties may be traced. The Asiatic religions seem universally mild, and even gay, as natural in the worship of a being who is benevolence itself; while in Africa the preponderance of the evil spirit seems to have been acknowledged by many nations. Certainly the Spaniards never sacrificed more victims than the Mexicans themselves devoted; and the clamours of pretended philosophy will often be found in opposition to the real cause of humanity, which it aspires to defend. Could a change of manners have been effected without the use of the sword, it would have been highly desirable; but the design might have been as fruitless as a sermon to a tiger or a rattlesnake. The cruelties of the Spaniards must, by candour, be partly imputed to the profusion of torture and human blood which every where met their eyes in this unhappy country; as such scenes change the very nature of man, and inflame him like the carnage of a battle.

GOVERNMENT.—The ancient government of Mexico was an hereditary monarchy, tempered however by a kind of election not unknown in the barbarous ages of Europe, by which a brother or nephew of the late king was preferred to his sons. Despotism seems to have begun with the celebrated Montezuma. There were several royal councils, and classes of nobility, mostly hereditary. The nobles were styled *pilli* or *tlatoani*; but the Spaniards introduced the general term of *cazík*, which Clavigero says signifies a prince in the language of Hispaniola; but is by some asserted to imply a priest among the Mahometan Malays. Land was not supposed to belong to the monarch, but was alienable by the proprietors. As writing was unknown there was no code of laws, but Clavigero has preserved some traditions on the subject.

Their armour and tactics appear to have been extremely rude.

The Spanish government is vested in the viceroy of Mexico, whose rank and power are far superior to those of Peru, and the new kingdom of Granada. The legal salary of the viceroys of Mexico and Peru is now forty thousand ducats; but the disposal of lucrative offices, monopolies, connivances, presents, &c. sometimes swell them to an enormous amount. The court of the viceroy is formed on the regal model, with horse and foot guards, a grand household, and numerous attendants. In the provinces there are tribunals called Audiences, of which there are eleven for Spanish America; and the Council of the Indies, resident in Spain, controls even the viceroys. Some of the provinces seem to be merely geographic, or ecclesiastic denominations of sees, without any municipal or peculiar jurisdiction: but some have governors appointed by the viceroy. Besides the laws of Spain, there are particular codes, and statutes, which are consulted in legal decisions.

The government of these provinces may be termed military, the judgments of the inferior civil officers being subject to a reversion by the military commandants of districts. The ecclesiastics indeed divide the government with the military; but there exists the most perfect understanding between them, and they mutually assist each other in defending and extending their peculiar interests.

ARMY.—The European troops are of the choicest regiments from Spain. The regular troops of the kingdom, who are in the viceroyalty, acting from the stimulus of ambition and envy, are supposed to be equal to them. The militia with the regular officers are likewise good troops, but are not held in such high estimation as the other corps. These three corps, forming a body of twenty-three thousand two hundred men, may be called the regular force of the kingdom, as the militia, which amount to one hundred and thirty-nine thousand five hundred, would be of no more consequence against the regular troops of any civilized power, than the ancient aborigines of the country were against the army of Cortes. The appearance of the Spanish troops is certainly (at a distance) *a la militaire*. Their lances are fixed to the side of the saddle under the left thigh, and slant about five feet above the horse; on

the right the carbine is slung in a case to the front of the saddle (or pommel) crossways, the breech to the right hand; and on each side of the saddle behind the rider is a pistol; below the breech of the carbine is slung the shield, which is made of sole leather trebled, sewed together with thongs, with a band on the inside, to slip the left arm through; those of the privates are round, and about two feet diameter. The dragoons of the vice-royalty do not make use of the lance or shield, but are armed, equipped, and clothed after the modern manner, as are also the dragoons of the eastern provinces.

Their dress is a short blue coat, with a red cape and cuff without facings, leather or blue cotton velvet small clothes and waistcoat; the small clothes always open at the knees: the wrapping boot with the jack boot, and permanent spurs over it; a broad brimmed high crowned wool hat with a ribbon round it of various colours, generally received as a present from some female, which they wear as a badge of the favour of the fair sex, and a mark of their gallantry.

Their horses are small and slender limbed, but very agile, and are capable of enduring great fatigue. The equipments of the horses are, to our ideas, awkward, but perhaps superior to the English. Their bridles have a strong curb, which gives them a great mechanical force. The saddle is made after the Persian model, with a high projecting pommel, or, as anciently termed, bow, and is likewise raised behind; this is merely the tree. It is then covered by two or three coats of carved leather, and embroidered workmanship, some with gold and silver in a very superb manner. The stirrups are of wood closed in front, carved generally in the figure of a lion's head, or some other beast; they are very heavy, and to us present a very clumsy appearance. The horsemen seated on his horse has a small bag tied behind him, his blankets either under him or lying with his cloak between his body and the bow, which makes him at his ease. Thus mounted it is impossible for the most vicious animals to dismount them. They will catch another horse, when both are running nearly at full speed, with a noose and hair rope, with which they will soon choak down the beast they are pursuing. In short, they are probably the most expert horsemen in the world.

The discipline of their troops is very different

from ours: as to tactics, or military manoeuvres, they are not held in much estimation. On a march, a detachment of cavalry generally encamp in a circle. Their mode of attack is by squadrons on the different flanks of their enemies, but without regularity or concert, shouting, hallooing, and firing their carbines, after which, if they think themselves equal to the enemy, they charge with a pistol and then the lance.

NAVY.—The navy is that of the parent country; but there are many guard ships and commercial vessels solely appropriated to the American colonies. Four corvettes of twelve guns, and one goletta, are stationed at Monterey, to supply the presidencies of North California with necessaries. These vessels performed the Spanish expeditions to the north-west coast of America.

REVENUE.—The revenue which Mexico yields to the Spanish crown has been shewn by Dr. Robertson to amount to above a million sterling, but there are great expences. By the most recent account the total revenue derived by Spain from America and the Philippines, is 2,700,000*l.*; of which one half must be deducted for the extravagant charges of administration. It has been asserted that the king's fifth of the mines of New Spain only was two million sterling, which would swell the annual produce of the Mexican mines to ten millions. Dr. Robertson shews, from Campomanes, that the whole produce of the American mines is 7,425,000*l.* of which the king's fifth, if regularly paid, would be 1,485,000*l.*: and it is probable that the mines of New Spain or Mexico, prior to the opulent discoveries in the north-west provinces, did not yield above one half of the whole amount.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE.—The political importance of colonies is of course merged in that of the parent country. If the spirit of bigotry could be suppressed, which neglects every worldly concern, and if the Spanish colonies were thrown open to the industry and enterprise of foreigners, they might recover from their enfeebled state, and oppose a bold front to any invaders. In the present situation of affairs perhaps sound policy would even dictate their emancipation, on condition of paying an annual tribute, which might even be more considerable than the present revenue, from the suppression of useless offices and emoluments, and the extortion of powerful individuals, which yields

nothing to the revenues of Spain. Dr. Robertson has observed that the Mexican gazettes are filled with descriptions of religious processions, and edifying accounts of the consecrations of churches, festivals and beatifications of saints, and other superstitious baubles, while civil and commercial affairs occupy little attention. The advertisements of new books shew that two thirds are treatises of scholastic theology and monkish devotion. Even this state of affairs is better than the sanguinary idolatry of the natives: but few exertions of ability or industry can be expected from such fanatics; and it may easily be predicted that a continuance of this spirit would render the people as unfit for war as for pacific enterprizes; and that if Spain do not amend her colonial system, her rich possessions will, at the first onset, become a prey to their northern neighbours.

Captain Pike, an American, who was sent in 1807 by his government to explore Louisiana, was arrested by the Spaniards, and carried into New Spain, an account of which he published on his return. In his remarks on the political situation of the Mexican dominions, he observes, that the conduct of England, in her late descent at La Plata, had induced the Mexicans to turn their views for assistance to other quarters.—‘They have,’ he proceeds, ‘directed their eyes towards the United States, as brethren of the same soil in their vicinity; who have within their power ample resources of arms, ammunition, and even men, to assist in securing their independence; and who in that event would secure to themselves the almost exclusive trade of the richest country in the world for centuries, and to be her carriers as long as the two nations exist. For Mexico, like China, will never become a nation of mariners, but must receive the ships of all the world into her ports, and give her bullion in exchange for the productions of their different countries. What would not be the advantages the United States would reap from this event? our numerous vessels would fill every port, and from our vicinity enable us to carry off at least nine-tenths of her commerce. Even on the coast of the Pacific no European nation could vie with us: there would also be a brisk inland trade carried on with the southern provinces by the Red river, and having a free entrance into all their ports, we should become their factors, agents, guardians, and, in short, their tutelar genius; as the country fears but

hates France and all French men and measures. It therefore remains for the government of the United States to decide, whether they will hold out a helping hand, to emancipate another portion of the western hemisphere from the bonds of European tyranny and oppression, or by a different policy suffer six hundred thousand people to become, in the hands of French intrigue, enterprise, and tactics, a scourge to our south-western boundaries, which would oblige us to keep up a large and respectable military force, and continually render us liable to a war, on the weakest and most vulnerable part of our frontiers.’

Such are the opinions of an American writer on this subject. But the recent approximation of the United States, with the gigantic projects of French ambition, have excited the attention and aroused the passions of the inhabitants of Mexico, and their attempts to conquer their political independence will not be easily repressed. But whether they remain subject to the king of Spain, or procure that independence which, from the peculiarity of their situation, would naturally end in a state of anarchy, it is probable that they will become subject to their more united, courageous, and enterprising neighbours, the inhabitants of the states.

Historical Geography.

HISTORY.—The original population of these extensive regions was various, consisting of Mexicans, and other tribes; considerably civilized in the centre, while to the north and south were savage races. The origin of the Mexicans remains in great obscurity, after the fruitless researches of many ingenious and learned men. Their language appears to be totally different from that of the Peruvians; but the Mexican vocabularies are very imperfect. There seems not however to be any resemblance between either of these languages, and that of the Malays, who peopled the numerous islands in the Pacific Ocean; nor are the Tartarian, or Mandshur features to be traced in any account of the Mexicans or Peruvians, though singularly distinct from those of other races: yet Dr. Foster, in his history of the voyages of the north, supposes that these kingdoms were founded in the thirteenth century, by the troops contained in some of the ships sent by Kublai Khan from China, to subdue Japan; that great fleet having

been scattered, and supposed to have been lost in a severe tempest. But the animals of America are mostly distinct from those of the old continent; and could in no case have descended from them. If it cannot be allowed that the great Creator, in like manner, ordained a distinct race of men for this continent, it will be necessary before this curious question be determined to collect vocabularies of the African languages, as there are on that continent several nations of a copper colour, resembling the Americans; and the Mexicans and Peruvians might become more civilized from mere advantages of situation and accident. It is, however, deeply to be regretted that these American empires, or kingdoms, were destroyed; as, not to mention the cause of humanity, they would have afforded curious objects for philosophic observers of human nature. The general opinion seems to be that the Mexicans and Peruvians were a distinct race from the other Americans; and amidst a variety of conjectures it might be enquired if they did not proceed from Japan, or be haply of the same race with the people of the large island of Tchoka, or Sagalian, whose features, as delineated by La Perouse, and the literary men who accompanied him, bear no resemblance to the Tartaric. In this case we may conceive that they are remains of a people in eastern Asia, who were expelled by the Mandshurs, on their progress from more western settlements.

The historical epochs of Mexico have been of little moment since it was conquered by the Spaniards in 1521, when the last monarch Cuatimozin perished, Montezuma having died in the preceding year. According to the Mexican traditions, their ancestors consisted of several savage tribes, who about the tenth or eleventh century of the Christian era moved in successive migrations from unknown regions towards the north and north-west, and settled in Anahuac. About the beginning of the thirteenth century a tribe, more polished than the rest, advanced from the borders of the Californian gulf, and took possession of the plains adjacent to the great lake near the centre of the country. They were for a time governed by chiefs or judges, till the territories becoming more extensive, the supreme authority centred at last in a single person. Even from the most extensive accounts the monarchical government had not lasted above 197 years; that is, it commenced about A. D. 1324, the first monarch being Acamapit-

zin. Wars and rebellions, famines and inundations, constitute the chief features of Mexican history; and the Spanish government presents few events of moment, the natives being confined between the two seas, and more easily checked than in South America, where there is a wide extent of territory for retreat and conspiracy.

The extensive peninsula of California was discovered by Cortez in 1536, but was so completely neglected, that in most charts it was represented as an island. The jesuits afterwards explored this province, and acquired a dominion there as complete as in Paraguay. On their expulsion in 1766 it was found to be a not unfertile region, with some mines of gold and a valuable pearl fishery. The countries of Cinaloa and Sonora, on the east side of the Vermilion sea or gulf of California, as well as the immense provinces of New Navarre, and others of New Mexico, never were subject to the Mexican sceptre, but now acknowledge the power of Spain, though the settlers be few.—In 1765 a war broke out with the savages, which ended in their submission, 1771. During their marches the Spaniards discovered at Cineguilla, in the province of Sonora, a plain of fourteen leagues in extent, in which vast quantities of gold were found in large lumps, at the depth of only sixteen inches. Before the end of the year 1771 above two thousand persons were settled at Cineguilla; and other mines, not inferior in wealth, have been discovered in other parts of Sonora and Cinaloa. It is probable that these discoveries have instigated other settlements in the northern parts of New Spain, and in New Mexico. These colonizations, and the settlement of Santa Fe, and others in that vicinity, are important events in the history of the Spanish territories. It is, however, to be lamented, that the progress of these settlements has not been explained with more care and accuracy, for no small obscurity attends their chronology.

The Mexicans have long evinced a disposition for independence. In 1624 they made a feeble attempt at a revolution. In 1797 they proclaimed the Count de Galves king of Mexico, in the streets of the capital, and one hundred and thirty thousand souls were heard proclaiming, 'Long live Galves, king of Mexico.' It was then only for him to have *willed* it, and the kingdom of Mexico was lost to

Charles the fourth for ever. But preferring his loyalty to his ambition, he rode out to the mob, attended by his guards, with his sword in hand, crying out, 'Long live his catholic majesty Charles the fourth,' and threatening to put to instant death, with his own hand, any persons who refused immediately to retire to their houses. This dispersed the people. In another quarter of the kingdom an immense number had collected and proclaimed him king: he sent ten thousand men against them, dispersed them, and had four beheaded. These firm measures saved the country at that period.—Galves received the greatest honours from the court of Spain, but was poisoned in a short time after, fulfilling the maxim, 'That it is dangerous to serve jealous tyrants.'

The news of the overthrow of the Spanish monarchy by Bonaparte, was received in Mexico with great indignation; and the inhabitants of the city of Mexico in eleven days subscribed about 700,000*l.* to aid their patriotic brethren in Europe. But as most of the high offices in Spanish America were filled by the creatures of the Prince of Peace, a tool of Bonaparte's, the dread of French influence and intrigue in many places produced a civil war: nor did the impolitic conduct of the Spanish central junta tend to reconcile the enraged colonists. In the year 1808 the viceroy of Mexico, Harngray, was arrested and deposed by one party of the inhabitants; while the other party espoused and endeavoured to support his authority: but what is very strange, the junta took part, in this instance, with the insurgents.

Mexico had felt long and severely the impolitic and unjust measures of Spain; she had been inundated by men sent from thence, in order to retrieve or make their fortunes by the plunder and oppression of the colonists. The creoles were neglected; and, as if neglect were not enough to irritate and alienate them, their hopes and expectations were repeatedly raised by the Spanish government, and then dashed to the ground. Had the Spanish government been actually desirous of disgusting and separating the Mexicans entirely from the mother country, they could not have done it more effectually than by the whole tenour of the conduct they adopted.

While things were in this critical state, an insurrection broke out, in September, 1810, at Dolores, a town in the province of Guanaxuea-

to, in the middle of the mining district of Mexico. This insurrection was begun, spread, and headed principally by the priests; afterwards several lawyers and military officers joined it; and the latter brought over some regiments of the militia. This insurrection spread rapidly and widely: in a short time more than half the province was overrun by the insurgents or had joined them. Upwards of 40,000 men were in arms; and though they were repeatedly defeated, they constantly rallied and appeared with undiminished force.

In the month of November they advanced with great confidence, and in great force, against the city of Mexico itself; they had previously taken the populous town of Guanaxueato, and been received as friends by the inhabitants of Valladolid. Their expectations of gaining possession of Mexico arose more from the power and intrigues of the partizans within the city than the force of their army. But in these expectations they were mistaken; for while affairs were in this precarious state, Venegas arrived from Spain, as viceroy of Mexico. He was a man peculiarly fitted for the management of the government at this period; for he was possessed in an eminent degree of activity, firmness, and energy. He soon detected the partizans of the insurgents within the city of Mexico: he watched all their movements: he thwarted all their measures; so that they had no opportunity to be of the least service to the army that was advancing against the city. At this period, too, the influence of superstition was called in; the archbishop threatened to excommunicate all who had joined the insurgents, if they did not immediately desert them: this kept back their partizans within the city, and even thinned the ranks of their army. Venegas, however, did not depend entirely upon these measures; he collected as many troops as he could; and, by his masterly dispositions, succeeded in baffling all the movements of the insurgents, whom he drove before him, and greatly weakened as well as dispirited their troops. At length in March, 1811, the principal leaders of the insurrection, their army being greatly reduced by defeat and desertion, were surprised at Saltillo. Notwithstanding all these disasters, the spirit still existed, for within a very short period after the battle of Saltillo, a body of 12,000 insurgents were collected near Queretaro and again defeated.

It would appear that Venegas has used his victories with great cruelty: he has inflicted the most severe and barbarous punishments upon such of the insurgents as have fallen into his hands. Indeed the civil war in Mexico has been attended with greater slaughter and cruelty than in other parts of Spanish America: in this province the jealousy and hatred existing between the Europeans and the creoles is very great; and when this jealousy and hatred was increased, and found room and opportunity to operate without restraint during the civil commotions, it may easily be supposed that their effects would be dreadful in the extreme. The country has been laid waste: every thing has been destroyed that could be destroyed: houses, plantations, and even the miners have suffered; so that even if tranquillity were restored, of which though the prospect is more likely, it is still very distant and uncertain, many years must elapse, much labour and capital must be expended, before the country will resume its former condition, or the inhabitants be restored to their former wealth and comforts. The destruction of the mines is principally to be deplored; it must necessarily require a great outlay of money before they can be put into a condition again to be wrought with ease, advantage, and profit; and they will be unproductive at the very time when the mother country stands most in need of their wealth.

ANTIQUITIES.—The ancient monuments of

the Mexicans seem chiefly to consist of a few symbolical paintings, the colours of which are remarkably bright, but the designs rude. Some of their utensils and ornaments have also been preserved, but are coarse and uncouth. Their edifices appear to have been little superior, being meanly built with turf and stone, and thatched with reeds. The great temple of Mexico was a square mound of earth, only ninety feet wide, partly faced with stone; with a quadrangle of thirty feet at the top, on which was a shrine of the deity, probably of wood.—In spite of the enthusiastic suggestions of Clavigero, such a temple would make a mean figure if placed by the side of the Peguan Shomadoo, erected at a barbarous and early epoch of the Peguese, who are not even now esteemed to be highly civilised. The most remarkable monument still remaining is thought to be the aqueduct of Chempoallan—but the architect was a Franciscan missionary! Our fanciful author proceeds to prove, from tribute rolls, that the Mexicans used lime; but the best proof would have been a few solid walls. As the first Spanish conquerors, in the true spirit of Mendez de Pinto, described every trifling object in the wildest colours of hyperbole, so the warm imagination of Clavigero creates wonders for its own admiration, while in truth the Mexicans appear to have little exceeded the inhabitants of Easter Island in any of the arts.

LOUISIANA.

LOUISIANA may be considered as bounded on the north and north-west by the high lands, which divide the waters that fall into the St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay from those which fall into the Mississippi; on the west by that high chain of mountains, known by the name of the Shining Mountains, which may be called the Spine or the Andes of that part of North America, and which turn the waters on the west of them to the Pacific, and those on the east to the Atlantic ocean. In a word, it

embraces the whole slope, or inclined plane, fronting the south-east and east, down which the various streams flow into the bed of the Mississippi. On the south-west it is bounded by New Mexico, between which and Louisiana the divisional line has never been settled.

Louisiana may naturally be divided into the three following districts: viz. Eastern, Lower, and Upper Louisiana. The Eastern division comprehends all that part of this territory which lies east of the Mississippi, bounded on the

south by the gulf of Mexico, on the east by Perdido river, on the north by the Mississippi territory, and on the west by the Mississippi river. This division includes the island of New Orleans, and is watered by several rivers. The whole coast, embracing the old Biloxi district, consists of a fine white sand, injurious to the eyes, and so dry as not to be fit to produce any thing but pine, cedar, and some evergreen oaks. The Mobile river has few fish, and its banks and vicinity are not very fertile. Between Pascagoula and Mississippi rivers, the country is intermixed with extensive hills, fine meadows, numerous thickets, and in some places woods thickset with cane, particularly on the banks of rivers and brooks, and proper for agriculture. Its coast, though flat, dry, and sandy, abounds with delicious shell and other fish, and affords security against the invasion of an enemy.

Lower Louisiana comprehends that part of this territory bounded on the east by the Mississippi river, on the south by the gulf of Mexico, on the south-west and west by New Mexico, and on the north by a line drawn from the Mississippi west, dividing the country in which stone is found from that in which there is none. This part of Louisiana is watered by Red river, and many others which fall into the gulf of Mexico. On both sides of the mouths of the Mississippi are quagmires, affording a safe retreat for water-fowl, gnats, and mosquitoes, and extending for more than twenty miles.—The whole coast from the Mississippi, west as far as St. Bernard's Bay and beyond it, resembles that already described of the eastern division; and the soil is barren. In ascending the Mississippi, beyond the marshes, are some narrow strips of firm land, partly bare of trees and partly thickly covered with them; which are fit for cultivation. This part seems to have been either recovered from the sea, or formed by various materials that have descended to it; and it is not unreasonable to imagine, that in process of time the river and sea may form another tract of country like Lower Louisiana.—The principal river is the Mississippi. The Red river has its source not far from that of Rio Bravo, or Rio del Norte, on which the city of Santa Fe is built, and in the mountain which has the springs of the Missouri. On each side of this river are some scattered settlements, for about fifty miles to Bayan Rapide, in which are about 100 families. The land here is not

inferior to any in the world with regard to fertility; and for a space of about 40 miles from hence to the commencement of the Appulasa prairies, the country is equally rich and well timbered. It is perfectly level, and the soil 20 feet deep, and like a bed of manure. Higher up, the banks and low lands are of similar quality with the lands on Bayan Rapide, the texture of the soil being somewhat looser; but there are few settlements, till you come to the river Cane settlements, 60 or 70 miles higher up Red river. The country abounds with beautiful fields and plantations, and luxuriant crops of corn, cotton, and tobacco. The low grounds of Red river, generally five or six miles wide, have an uncommonly rich soil, which is overflowed annually in the month of April.—The crops of corn and tobacco are plentiful, and never fail. The soil is particularly favourable for tobacco; an acre yields from 80 to 100 bushels of corn; and it is no less productive of cotton. Two men, with ten or twelve old pots and kettles, supply the settlement on Red river with salt, the springs of which are almost inexhaustible. Here is likewise plenty of iron and copper ore, pit coal, shell and stone lime. The different branches of the river, the lakes, creeks, and bayans furnish abundance of very fine fish, cockles, soft-shelled turtle and shrimps, and in winter great varieties of wild fowl. The country is far from being sickly. The musquito is rarely seen. The high lands are covered with oak, hiccory, ash, gum, sassafras, dogwood, grape-vines, &c. intermixed with short-leaved pine, and interspersed with prairies, creeks, lakes, and fountains. Its hills and vallies are gently varied, and the soil is generally a stony clay. The country on Red river is most valuable, beginning about 50 or 60 miles above the upper settlements, and extending 4 or 500 miles. The low lands, about 40 miles on each side, are remarkably rich, interspersed with prairies, and beautiful streams and fountains; also quarries of free-stone, lime, flint, slate, grit, and almost every kind of stone. About 30 miles from the mouth of Red river, Black river falls into it, on the north side, which is a clear and navigable stream for 5 or 600 miles: about 100 miles upwards, it branches in three different directions: the eastern branch, called the Tensaw, is navigable for many miles, and affords rich land; the middle or main branch, called Washeta, is navigable 500 miles, and affords excellent lands;

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salt-springs, lead-ore, and plenty of very good mill and grind-stones; the western branch, called Catahola, runs through a beautiful, rich, prairie country, in which is a large lake, called Catahola lake. On this lake are salt springs, and it abounds with fish and fowl. On the river called Ozark are many valuable tracts of land, which is likewise the case with respect to White river and St. Francois.

Upper Louisiana comprehends all the remainder of this territory, and is the largest and most valuable part. It is bounded on the south by Lower Louisiana, on the east by the Mississippi, and on the north and west by the highlands and mountains which divide the waters of St. Lawrence, Hudson's Bay, and the Pacific Ocean, from those of the Mississippi. It is watered by the Red river, the Arkansas, St. Francis, and the Missouri, with a vast number of smaller streams which fall into these or the Mississippi. From the lower settlement at Sans la Grace, to the upper settlement on the Missouri, about the distance of 250 miles, is a country equal to any part of the western territory, furnishing lead and iron mines. The soil is at the bottom a solid red clay, and this is covered by a light earth almost black and very fertile. The grass grows here to a great height, and towards the end of September is set on fire; and in eight or ten days after, the young grass shoots up half a foot high. In advancing northwards towards the Arkansas and St. Francis, the country becomes more beautiful and fertile, abounding in various kinds of game, as beavers, &c. and herds of deer, elks, and buffaloes, from 6 to 100 in a drove. Here have been also found specimens of rock crystal, plaster of Paris, lead, and iron ore, limestone, and pit-coal. It has all the trees known in Europe, besides others that are there unknown. The cedars are remarkably fine; the cotton trees grow to such a size, that the Indians make canoes out of their trunks; hemp grows naturally; tar is made from the pines on the sea coast; and the country affords every material for ship-building.—Beans grow to a large size without culture; peach trees are heavily laden with fruit; and the forests are full of mulberry and plum trees. Pomegranate and chesnut trees are covered with vines, whose grapes are very large and sweet. They have three or four crops of Indian corn in the year; as they have no other winter besides some rains. Here are also mines of pit-

coal, lead, and copper, quarries of freestone, and of black, white, and jasper-like marble, of which they make their calumets. One species of timber, which is common from the mouth of the Ohio down the Mississippi swamp, is cotton wood, resembling the Lombardy poplar in the quickness of its growth, and the softness of the timber. Here are also the papaw and black ash, button wood or sycamore, hiccory, and cypress; wild cherry, sassafras, beech, chesnut, and Bermudian mulberry trees.

As to the climate of this country, during the winter the weather is very changeable, generally throughout Lower, and the southern part of Upper Louisiana. In summer it is regularly hot. In the latitude of the Natchez, Fahrenheit's thermometer ranges from 17 to 96 deg. The average degree of heat is stated to be 14 deg. greater than in Pennsylvania. The climate of Louisiana varies in proportion as it extends northward. Its southern parts are not subject to the same degree of heat as the same latitudes in Africa, nor its northern parts to the same degree of cold as the corresponding latitudes in Europe; owing to the thick woods which cover the country, and to the great number of rivers which intersect it. The prevailing diseases on the lower part of the Ohio, on the Mississippi, and through the Floridas, are bilious fevers. In some seasons they are mild, and are little more than common intermittents; in others they are very malignant, and approach the genuine yellow fever of the West Indies.

The total population of all the parts or districts of Louisiana, including whites, free people of colour, and slaves, is 42,375, of whom 12,920 are slaves. But it is apprehended that this number is too small. The Spanish government is fully persuaded that the population at present considerably exceeds 50,000 persons. The inhabitants of this country are chiefly the descendants of the French and Canadians. In New Orleans there is a considerable number of English and Americans. The two German coasts are peopled by the descendants of settlers from Germany, and by French mixed with them.—The three succeeding settlements up to Baton Rouge contain mostly Acadians, banished from Nova Scotia by the English, and their descendants. The government of Baton Rouge, especially on the east side, which includes the whole country between the Iberville and the American line, is composed partly of Acadians, a few

French, and a great majority of Americans. At least two fifths, if not a greater proportion of all the settlers on the Spanish side of the Mississippi, in the Illinois country, are likewise supposed to be Americans. Below New Orleans the population is altogether French, and the descendants of Frenchmen. The natives of the southern part of the Mississippi are sprightly; they have a turn for mechanics, and the fine arts; but their system of education is so wretched, that little real science is obtained. Many of the planters are opulent, industrious, and hospitable. There is a militia in Louisiana, amounting, as it is said, to about 10,340.

The exports of Louisiana amount in value to 2,185,000 dollars; and the imports, in merchandise, plantation utensils, slaves, &c. amount to 2,500,000, the difference being made up by the money introduced by the government, to pay the expences of governing and protecting the colony. The imports to the United States from Louisiana and the Floridas amounted in 1802 to 1,006,214 dollars, and the exports to Louisiana and the Floridas in the same year to 1,224,710 dollars. In Louisiana there are few domestic manufactures. The Acadians manufacture a little cotton into quilts and cottonades, and in the remoter parts of the province, the poorer planters spin and weave some negro cloths of cotton and wool mixed. In the city, besides the trades which are absolutely necessary, there is a considerable manufacture of cordage, and four small ones of shot and hair powder; and within a few leagues of the town are twelve distilleries for making taffia, which are said to distil annually a considerable quantity, and one sugar refinery, which is said to make about 200,000lbs. of loaf sugar. There are no colleges, and but one public school, which is at New Orleans. There are a few private schools for children. Not more than half of the inhabitants are able to read and write. In general the learning of the inhabitants does not extend beyond those two arts; though they seem to be endowed with a good natural genius, and an uncommon facility of learning whatever they undertake.

The clergy consists of a bishop, who does not reside in the province, whose salary of 4000 dollars is charged on the revenue of certain bishoprics in Mexico and Cuba; two canons, and 25 curates, receive each from 360 to 480 dollars a year. At Orleans there is a convent

of Ursulines, to which is attached about 1000 acres of land.

Various tribes of the Indians still inhabit this extensive region; but these will be noticed in our general view of the native Americans.

Louisiana was first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto in 1541, and afterwards visited by Colonel Wood in 1654, and by Captain Bolt in 1670. Several unsuccessful attempts were made to settle in this country; after which Crozat, a merchant of great opulence and an enterprising spirit, obtained the exclusive trade of Louisiana; but his plans, which were extensive and patriotic, proved ineffectual, he resigned his charter, in 1717, to a company formed by the famous projector John Law, from this period the country became an object of interest to speculative adventurers, so that in 1718 and 1719 a numerous colony of labourers, collected from France, Germany, and Switzerland, was conveyed to Louisiana, and settled in a district called Biloxi, on the island of Orleans, a barren and unhealthy situation, where many hundreds died through want and vexation. This event ruined the reputation of the country; and the colony continued to languish until the year 1764, when the inhabitants received information that in November, 1762, Louisiana, comprehending New Orleans and the whole territory west of the Mississippi, had been ceded to Spain by a secret treaty. This measure incensed the colonists, and was vigorously opposed, so that complete possession of the country was not obtained by Spain till the 17th of August, 1769, after which event several victims were sacrificed, to atone for the delay of submission, and others were conveyed away to languish out their lives in the dungeons of the Havannah. By the treaty of peace in 1763, which ceded Canada to Great Britain, the boundaries of the British provinces were extended southward to the gulf of Mexico, and westward to the Mississippi; and Louisiana was limited on the north by Canada, and on the east by the Mississippi, excepting that it included the island of New Orleans on its east bank. This state of things remained till the American revolutionary war, during which Spain took from Great Britain the two Floridas: the United States, according to their present limits, became an independent government, and left to Great Britain, of all her American provinces, those only which lie north and east of the United States. All these

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changes were sanctioned and confirmed by the treaty of 1783. Thus things continued till the treaty of St. Ildefonso, October 1, 1800, by which Spain engaged to cede to the French republic, on certain conditions, the colony or province of Louisiana, with the same extent which it actually had when France possessed it. This treaty was confirmed and enforced by the treaty of Madrid, March 21, 1801. From France it

passed to the United States by the treaty of the 30th of April, 1803. In consideration of this cession, the government of the United States engaged to pay to the French government, under certain stipulations, the sum of 60,000,000 francs, independent of the sum which should be fixed by another convention for the payment of the debts due by France to the citizens of the United States.

THE FLORIDAS.

FLORIDA is bounded on the north by Georgia, on the east by the Atlantic, on the south by the gulf of Mexico, and on the west by the Mississippi. East Florida extends much further south than West Florida; the gulf of Mexico washing the western coast from 25 to 30 deg. north lat.; whereas the most southern part of West Florida is in north lat. 29 deg. 30 min. The form of East Florida is triangular, the base towards the north being 160 miles in breadth from east to west, near the southern extremity about 40, and about 350 from north to south. Along the coasts the bays of small islands are numerous. The soil near the sea coast is sandy and barren, but further inland it improves. The productions are chiefly rice and indigo. West Florida is about 320 miles from east to west, and from 40 to 80 in width from north to south; on the west it is bounded by the river Mississippi, and on the east by Appalachicola. The country is pleasant, and the soil is exceedingly fertile, so that the inhabitants have sometimes two or three harvests of maize in the same year. Towards the coast it is flat, but rises gradually into hills, which are covered with verdure and large trees, such as white and red oak, crab oak, mulberry, magnolia, pine, hickory, cypress, red and white cedar, &c. Orange and lemon trees grow here without cultivation, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. They have also vines, which yield grapes equal in size and flavour to the best muscadine; and they have abundance of other fruits of excellent flavour.

The cabbage tree furnishes a food that is pleasant and wholesome. Cotton is produced in great plenty; as well as flax and hemp. Among the richer productions of the country we may reckon cochineal and indigo. The coasts furnish oysters and amber. The rivers abound in fish, but are molested by alligators. In the western parts are numerous herds of cattle and flocks of sheep: hogs also, whose flesh acquires an excellent flavour from the acorns and chestnuts on which they feed, are numerous. In the forests and deserts are found several species of wild beasts, and also a variety of birds. In summer the air is very hot, but in several places it is pure and wholesome; the winter is commonly temperate, though the cold sometimes destroys the orange trees. The rivers are covered with ice. The principal town in West Florida is Pensacola, and in East Florida St. Augustine. The population of West Florida is very inconsiderable; Mobile and Pensacola together not containing above 1500 souls. The interior of East Florida is little known, and only inhabited by a few Creeks or Seminoles.—The town of St. Augustine in East Florida is less healthy than some have supposed it to be; but the climate, and also the general appearance of the country, would be much improved, if industry and labour were bestowed upon it, and the inland marshes were properly drained.

This country is said to have been discovered by Sebastian Cabot in the year 1496, 18 years before it was known to the Spaniards; but received its name from John Ponce, who, sailing

from Porto Rico in 1513, landed here in April, when the country appeared in full verdure and bloom. Florida has frequently changed its masters; in 1564 the French took possession of some part of it, but they were driven from their settlements in the following year by the Spaniards, who then began to form establishments for themselves. In the year 1763 Florida was ceded to Great Britain in exchange for the Havana, which had been taken from the Spaniards. Whilst the English were in the possession of it they divided it into two governments, viz. East and West Florida, separated by the Appala-

chicola. During the American war, both the Floridas were reduced by the Spaniards, and guaranteed to the crown of Spain by the definitive treaty of 1783. Although this country was of little value to Great Britain, the possession of it will be valuable to the United States, more especially since they have obtained the province of Louisiana. On the part of Spain, the cession of it is perhaps politic, as it may serve to divert the attention of the States from the riches of the west, and as a means of amity. West Florida, in particular, is chiefly useful as presenting avenues of commerce.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

THOSE parts of North America which still belong to Great Britain are extensive, and of considerable importance, though so thinly peopled, and in such a disadvantageous climate, that they sink into insignificance, when compared with the great and flourishing colony belonging to Spain, or with the territories of the United States. The inhabitants of the former have been estimated at seven millions, and those of the States at eight; while those of the British possessions scarcely exceed four hundred thousand souls, of which a great part are French and indigenes.

DIVISIONS.—The chief of these possessions is Canada, now divided into two provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada, the former being the western division, on the north of the great lakes or sea of Canada; while the lower division is on the river St. Lawrence towards the east, and contains Quebec the capital, and the chief city of our remaining settlements.

On the east of Canada, to the south of the river St. Lawrence is Nova Scotia; which in 1784 was divided into two provinces, that of Nova Scotia in the south, and New Brunswick in the north.

What is called New Britain comprehends the most northern parts towards Hudson's Bay, and the coast of Labrador. The large island of Newfoundland; that called Cape Breton; and the

neighbouring isle St. John; complete the chief denominations of British territory. But in the English maps, while Greenland is assigned to Denmark, all the other most northern parts of America, on the east and on the west, as far south as the port of Sir Francis Drake, are impressed with the colour of British territory. By the right of prior, or at least of more complete and precise discovery, the western coast might be considered as belonging to England, according to the established usage of all European nations; and which, of course, must be admitted as valid in a cause between any two of them. This right may indeed be carried to a ridiculous excess; and we have seen navigators, in our own time, giving new names to places in Cochin China, a country perhaps as civilised as their own; which is the same as if a Chinese junk should sail up the Thames, and the captain bestow new names upon every object. But in a country thinly inhabited by savages, and adapted for European settlements, the case is totally different; and any usage, however ridiculous, must be admitted, which tends to prevent disputes and contests. The first settlement seems, however, to be the most rational claim; and no such event having yet happened, the western coast of North America shall be arranged among the Unconquered Countries, which seems to be the most proper method,

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when the settlements are only a few detached factories, to which the natives profess no subjection. Hence the regions around Hudson's Bay, with Labrador and Greenland, are, from the intense severity of the climate, declared free by nature, and shall also be classed among the Unconquered Countries. The present short description shall therefore only comprise Canada, and the other British provinces in the north, which form actual possessions or colonies.

CANADA.

EXTENT.—This country is computed to extend from the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the isle of Anticosti, in the east, to the lake of Winnipeg in the west, or from long. 64 deg. to 97 deg. west from London, thirty-three degrees, which in that latitude may be about 1200 geographical miles. The breadth, from the lake of Erie, in the south, or lat. 43 deg. may extend to lat. 49 deg. or 360 geographical miles; but the medial breadth is not above 200.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.—Mr. Weld, who is a great admirer of ice, depicts the Canadian climate in the most favourable colours, and would persuade us that, though considerably further to the north, it is at least equal to that of New England. But even by his account the extremes of heat and cold are amazing; the thermometer in July and August rising to 96, while in winter the mercury freezes. The snow begins in November; and in January the frost is so intense that it is impossible to be out of doors for any time without the risk of what is called a frost-bite, which endangers the limb: and the warm intervals only increase the sensation and the jeopardy. But winter, as in Petersburg, is the season of amusement; and the sledges, drawn by one or two horses, afford a pleasant and speedy conveyance. Several stoves are placed in the hall, whence flues pass to the apartments; and there are double windows and doors. On going abroad the whole body is covered with furs, except the eyes and nose. In May the thaw generally comes suddenly, the ice on the river bursting with the noise of cannon, and its passage to the sea is terrific, especially when a pile of ice crashes against a rock. Spring is summer, and vegetation instantaneous. The month of September is one of the most pleasant.

Mr. Gray, a recent traveller in this country,

gives the following picturesque and amusing account of a Canadian winter:—

'A Canadian winter is truly a subject of curiosity to the natives of Britain, or of any of the southern countries of Europe. It presents a view of nature perfectly new, and a variety of phenomena so highly interesting, that they cannot fail to arrest the attention of any one at all conversant in natural philosophy.

In Canada there cannot well be said to be more than two seasons of the year, summer and winter. The earth hath scarcely laid aside her mantle of snow, when you begin to feel the force of summer heat; and although the weather in September is mild and pleasant, it partakes more of the summer than of the autumn of temperate climates. The season of vegetation seems kindly prolonged, till surprised in a manner at once by the return of winter, without much of what may be called autumn weather. Frost is felt in October, but the sun still retains enough of power to make the weather, during the day, tolerably warm. During the month of November the frost becomes daily more severe, and snow begins to fall.

'There is something very awful and terrific in a Canadian snow storm. A heavy fall of snow is generally accompanied by a violent gale of wind, which driving along the snow with immense velocity, and forming a thousand eddies and turnings, according to the inequalities of the surface, and resistance consequent thereon, you are able to form an idea of the velocity of the wind—it becomes, as it were, visible. The most severe snow storms they experience in Canada, come from the north-east, the frozen regions of Hudson's Bay and Labrador.

'The range of the thermometer in Canada is very extensive. The heat in summer runs into as great an extreme as the cold in winter. The range, during the last twelve months, has been no less than 120 degrees; and what is not a little surprising, it has reached 60 degrees precisely, on each side of the freezing point (32). In summer the thermometer rose to 92, and in winter it fell to 28 below zero. I have been told, that the cold has been known in this country to freeze mercury, the thermometer having fallen below 40 under zero.

'The effects of frost in this country are with difficulty guarded against, and are really in themselves very curious. I made an experiment which, to most people, will appear very

surprising. I BURNED my hand with a COLD IRON. This may seem incredible; but a little explanation will convince you of the truth of what I have asserted.

'In one of those very cold mornings we had in the month of January, when the thermometer had fallen near 60 degrees below the freezing point, I put my hand to a piece of iron that had been exposed to the frost in the open air all night. At first, I felt the sensation arising from extreme cold; in a few seconds I felt the sensation of heat; and it soon became so strong, and so painful, that I was as glad to quit my hold as if it had been a hot iron. Indeed, I found that I had kept it too long, because the part that had been in contact blistered, in the same manner it would have done had it been a hot iron, and it was cured in the same way.—No surgeon in England, had he been called in, could have suspected that it was not the effect of coming in contact with a *hot* iron. In truth, *heat* was the *cause* of the wound; and you will readily allow that I am correct, when I have explained to you a few circumstances.

'Burning by a hot iron is produced by the heat, or what is technically called *caloric*, passing in such quantity, and with such rapidity, *into* the part in contact with the iron, that the continuity and arrangement of the part is destroyed. Burning with a *cold iron* arises from the heat passing in such quantity, and with such rapidity, *out of* the part of the body in contact with the cold iron, as to produce the same effect. Heat, in both cases, is the cause; and its going *into* the body *from* the iron, or *into* the iron *from* the body, does not alter the nature of the effect.

'There is another effect very frequently produced by cold in this country, which bears no analogy (as in the preceding example) to any thing produced by external heat; and a dreadful effect it is—I mean *frost bitten*.

'When the weather is very cold, particularly when accompanied by a smart wind, instances of people being *frost bitten*, frequently occur. Not a season passes, without some of the sentinels being frost bitten on their posts. Sometimes their hands and face, sometimes their feet, are affected; and a mortification of the part generally follows, if the proper remedy is not applied in time. The remedy will seldom be applied if you are attacked in the dark, which is often the case with those who travel at night,

as well as with sentinels. Their own feelings do not inform them of the presence of the enemy; and they are not likely, in the dark, to have him discovered by other people. He insidiously makes a breach; and, if he can keep his ground but for a short time, it is in vain afterwards to think of dislodging him. In the towns, during the day, there is less danger, because you will be stopped by the first person who observes the symptoms. This is readily and easily done, as the part frost bitten becomes white, while the rest of the face is very red.

'In so critical a moment, people do not stand on any ceremony, as you may suppose. They know you are not conscious of your situation; and they also know, that before they could convince you that you are frost bitten, and on the point of losing your nose perhaps, it might actually be too late to apply the remedy; they instantly take a handful of snow, and either rub the part themselves, or make you do it.

'It certainly is enough to startle a stranger, to see a person, perfectly unknown to you, come running up, with a handful of snow, calling out, "*Your nose, Sir,—your nose,—you are frost bitten;*" and, without further ceremony, either themselves rubbing it without mercy, or making you do so.'

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—The face of the country is generally mountainous and woody; but there are savannas, and plains of great beauty, chiefly towards Upper Canada.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.—In the lower province the soil mostly consists of a loose blackish earth of ten or twelve inches, incumbent on cold clay. This thin mould is however very fertile, and manure was seldom or never used by the French settlers; but of late marl has been employed, and is found in considerable quantities on the shores of the river St. Lawrence. A little tobacco is cultivated for private use, with many culinary vegetables, and considerable crops of grain, wheat being reckoned among the exports: a kind of vine is indigenous, but the grapes are sour, and little larger than currants. Raspberries are also indigenous; and there are good currants and gooseberries. A great variety of trees is found in the forests; beech, oak, elm, ash, pine, sycamore, chesnut, walnut, &c. The sugar maple tree also abounds, and the sugar is generally used in the country. Of this tree there are two kinds, the swamp and the mountain maple. Mr. Weld points out

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some difficulties in the tenures of land, which ought to be removed, as in such a climate there is no occasion for a barrier against colonization.

RIVERS.—The great river St. Lawrence has been already described in the general view of North America. The Utawas is the most important of all its tributary streams, issuing from various lakes, towards the centre of Canada: its waters are of a bright greenish colour, while the St. Lawrence is muddy. Many rivers of smaller consequence flow into the river St. Lawrence from the north.

LAKES.—The large lakes have been also already mentioned: there are many others, of which the enumeration would be tedious; and some difficulty arises from the want of any precise boundary in the north of Canada.

MOUNTAINS.—Nor have the mountains been examined by any geologist, who could indicate their ranges or illustrate their structure. The chief ridge seems to be in the northern part of the province, in a direction south-west and north-east, giving source to the many streams which flow south-east, while a few pass to Hudson's Bay. But there are many mountains between Quebec and the sea, while towards the Utawas only a few are scattered, and to the south-west there are ample plains.

BOTANY.—The indigenous plants of the regions north of the river St. Lawrence form a singular mixture of the floras of Lapland and the United States. From the intensely cold winters and hot summers of this extensive appendage to the British empire, it might, indeed, be *à priori* expected that the annual plants, and such as are capable of being sheltered in winter under the snow, should be, for the most part, the same as those of more southern countries; while the trees and shrubs, having to brave the utmost rigour of the climate unprotected, should be characteristic of the arctic regions. A regard to this circumstance will enable us to explain the seeming contradictions in the agriculture of Canada, which are scarcely credible by the mere uninformed English farmer, such as that gourds and water melons should be a common field crop, while the hardiest winter corn is almost always destroyed by the cold.

The forests are numerous, but the trees never attain that bulk and luxuriance of growth which distinguishes them in the southern states. The family of firs and evergreens compose perhaps the largest proportion; and of these the princi-

pal are, the silver-leaved fir, the Weymouth pine, the Canadian pine, the hemlock spruce fir, and the white cedar of Canada, which must not be confounded with the white cedar of the United States. Next to these in importance are the sugar maple, the red maple, the birch, the American lime and elm, the iron wood and *cercis Canadensis*. The numerous species of oaks are either wholly unknown, or are contracted into despicable shrubs, all the ship timber of Canada being brought from the New England provinces. The sassafras, laurel, and red mulberry, are also met with in the islands of the St. Lawrence, but in a similar state of depression, the whole of the summer's growth being generally destroyed by the next winter. The ash, the yew, and mountain ash, are found in the northern tracts both of the old and new world; but the light festoons of wild vine, with its pendant clusters, and the fragrant blossoms of the Syrian asclepias, form a characteristic feature of the forest scenery of Canada.

The lilium *Canadense*, similar to the Sarrane lily of Kamtchatka, and the ginseng, common to America and Tartary, point out a similarity between the northern floras of Asia and America.

The juniper, the cranberry, the bearberry, the black and red currant, the raspberry, and wild cherry, which are natives of Lapland and the whole north of Europe, are found in great plenty in similar situations on the opposite shores of the Atlantic.

Of the other Canadian plants little is known, and a meagre catalogue of Linnæan names would contribute equally little to the amusement as to the instruction of the general reader. One, however, the *zizania aquatica*, deserves to be mentioned: this graminaceous vegetable is nearly allied to the rice; it grows abundantly in all the shallow streams, and its mild farinaceous seeds contribute essentially to the support of the wandering tribes of Indians, and to the immense flights of swans, geese, and other aquatic fowls, which resort hither for the purpose of breeding. Productive as it is, and habituated to the climate, inhabiting also situations which refuse all other culture, it is surprising that the European settlers have as yet taken no pains to improve a plant which seems intended by nature to become at some future period the bread corn of the North.

ZOOLOGY.—The chief singularities in zoology are the moose, the beaver, and some other ani-

imals, for which Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoology may be consulted. The rein-deer appears in the northern part, and the puma and lynx are not unknown. Both the Canadas are much infested with rattlesnakes. The humming bird is not uncommon at Quebec.

MINERALOGY.—The mineralogy is of little consequence; and even iron seems to be rare. There are said to be lead mines which produce some silver; and it is probable that copper may be found, as it appears in the south-west of lake Superior. Coal abounds in the island of Cape Breton, but this valuable mineral has not been discovered in Canada. If so wide a territory were properly examined by skilful naturalists, which ought always to be a primary care with every government for the most advantageous position of settlements, and that every advantage may be secured, it is highly probable that important discoveries might be made. Little is said of warm springs, or mineral waters.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—The chief natural curiosities seem to be the grand lakes, rivers, and cataracts. Among the latter the celebrated falls of Niagara are chiefly on the side of Upper Canada, the river being there 600 yards wide, and the fall 142 feet. A small island lies between the falls: and that on the side of the States is 350 yards wide, while the height is 163 feet: from the great fall a constant cloud ascends, which may sometimes be seen at an incredible distance; and the whole scene is truly tremendous.

Civil Geography.

POPULATION.—The population of Canada, at the time it came into the possession of the British in 1759-60, amounted to 75,600 souls, as appears from General Murray's report to the British government, immediately after the conquest. At that time the extensive country now called Upper Canada was not inhabited by any Europeans. At present the two Canadas contain at least 300,000 inhabitants; of these, Lower Canada contains about two thirds. The descendants of the old Canadians constitute at least nine tenths of the population of Lower Canada. In Upper Canada, the population amounts to about 100,000. These are all British, at least they speak English, and are governed entirely by the laws of England, both in civil and criminal matters; and in questions

relative to real property, as well as in questions relative to personal property.

From the preceding statement of the population, it is evident that the increase in Lower Canada for these last fifty years has been very great; it has, in fact, nearly tripled. In Upper Canada the increase has been very rapid, as several years elapsed after the conquest before any part of Upper Canada was settled or cultivated. Thirty years ago, Upper Canada was nearly a continued forest;—that a population of 100,000 should in that time accumulate, is a proof that the country and climate are propitious.

The Canadas owe much of their increase of population to emigrations from the United States of America, and from Europe. These emigrations, to a greater or less extent, take place every year. The emigrants generally prefer settling in Upper, rather than in Lower Canada, as well those from the United States, as those from Europe. There are many reasons for the preference given to Upper Canada, which will continue to draw a great augmentation to the natural increase of the population and wealth—whilst the Canadian French population will only increase in the ordinary ratio.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—The manners and customs of the settlers in Canada are considerably tinged with the French gaiety and urbanity, blended with the usual portion of vanity, which is however a far more laudable quality than avarice which is destructive of every generous motive and noble exertion. The French women in Canada can generally read and write, and are thus superior to the men; but both are sunk in ignorance and superstition, and blindly devoted to their priests.

'Strangers,' observes a recent traveller, 'are every where in Canada treated with the greatest politeness and attention. A Canadian landlady, the moment you stop, receives you at the door with a degree of urbanity which is as unexpected as it is pleasant. If they have got any thing you want, it is given at once with a good grace: if they have not, they tell you so in such a tone and manner as to shew that they are sorry for it.'

The Canadian innkeeper is frequently a farmer also, or a shopkeeper. Indeed, you need never be at a loss for a house to stop at. There is not a farmer, shopkeeper, nay, not even a *seigneur*, or country gentleman, who, on being

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civilly applied to for accommodation, will not give you the best bed in the house, and every accommodation in his power.

The Canadians are but *poor* farmers. Indeed, they are generally so, in more senses of the word than one. They are accused of indolence, and an aversion to experiment, or the introduction of any changes in their ancient habits and customs, and probably with reason:—it is the characteristic of the peasantry of all countries. But one of the principal causes of the poverty, not only of the Canadian farmer, but also of all ranks amongst them, is the existence of an old French law, by which the property of either father or mother is, on the death of either, *equally* divided amongst their children. Nothing seems more consonant to the clearest principles of justice than such a law; yet it is assuredly prejudicial to society.

In this country (or indeed in any other) an estate, with a good house upon it, convenient and appropriate offices, and a good stock of cattle, may be well cultivated, and support, creditably, a numerous family. If the head of the family dies, leaving half a dozen children, the estate and whole property is divided amongst them, which happens here every day. Each of the sons takes possession of his own lot, builds a house, marries, and has a family. The value of the whole property is very much lessened. He who gets the lot with the dwelling-house and offices, which served for the whole estate, gets what is out of all proportion to the means he now has of employing them: he can neither occupy them, nor keep them in repair. The other lots are generally too small to supply the expences of a family, or enable their owners to support that state of respectability in the country which their father did; so that, instead of one respectable and wealthy head of a family, who could protect and assist the younger branches, giving them a good education, and putting them forward in the world, you have half a dozen poor dispirited creatures, who have not energy or power to improve either their lands or themselves. Without great industry, and *some* capital, new lands cannot be brought into cultivation, nor can those already cleared be made very productive.

The French law supposes that matrimony is a co-partnership; and that, consequently, on the death of the wife, the children have a right to demand from their father the half of his pro-

perty, as heirs to their mother. If the wife's relations are not on good terms with the father, a thing that sometimes happens, they find it no difficult matter to induce the children to demand a *partage*, or division, which often occasions the total ruin of the father, because he loses credit, equal, at least, to his loss of property, and often to a greater extent. His powers are diminished, and his children still have a claim on him for support.

One effect of this law, and not one of the least material, is, that the affection between parents and children is likely to be destroyed by it; and, in fact, it is remarked, that in this country the instances of unfeeling conduct between parents and children are extremely frequent, and a spirit of litigation is excited amongst them.

The wife being by marriage invested with a right to half the husband's property; and, being rendered independent of him, is perhaps the remote cause that the fair sex have such influence in France; and in Canada, it is well known, that a great deal of consequence, and even an air of superiority to the husband, is assumed by them.

The English and American settlers in Canada preserve the manners and customs of their respective countries. A great proportion of the inhabitants of Upper Canada are natives of Scotland; who, by their habits of industry, economy, and perseverance, seem peculiarly fitted for improving this fine country.

When the navigation of the St. Lawrence becomes impracticable, little business is done by the merchants, who then appropriate a considerable part of their time to amusements. It is necessary to do something to give a little variety to the sameness of a six months' winter. They have parties of pleasure in town, and parties of pleasure in the country, in which are dancing, music, and the social enjoyments of conviviality.

In winter, when wheel carriages can no longer be used, a sort of sledge, called a *cariole*, is substituted. It passes over the snow without sinking deep. It is placed on what they call *runners*, which resemble in form, the irons of a pair of skais, and rise up in front in the same manner, and for the same purposes. The *cariole* is generally from nine to twelve inches above the snow. Some, called *high runners*, are about eighteen inches. The body of the *cariole* varies in shape, according to the fancy of the owner. It is sometimes

like the body of a phaeton, sometimes like a chair or gig, sometimes like a *vis-a-vis*, and sometimes like a family coach or chariot. The cariole, in short, is the name for all sorts of vehicles used in winter, from a market cart, up to a state coach. The generality of them are light, open carriages, drawn by one horse. The snow, after being trodden on for some time, becomes compact enough to bear the horse, and gives very little resistance to the cariole. It is, however, a very unpleasant conveyance, from the constant succession of inequalities which are formed in the snow by the carioles. These inequalities the Canadians call *cahots* (from the French word *cahoter*, to jolt), and they certainly are very well named, for a traveller is jolted as if he crossed a field with very deep furrows and high narrow ridges.

In all countries, people pass their leisure hours pretty much alike; that is, they dedicate them to amusement. In Canada, as most of their winter hours are leisure hours, there is, of course, some ingenuity necessary to give such variety to their amusements as may prevent them from becoming insipid by frequent repetition. Hence, in Quebec and Montreal, to the regular town parties are added irregular country parties.—*Pic-nic* feasts, where every one carries with him a ready-dressed dish, are very common; and as the place of rendezvous is generally a few miles out of town, the ladies and gentlemen have the pleasure of a little *carioling* before dinner; the roads, it is true, are often abominably bad, being a constant succession of *cahots*, in which they are jolted most unmercifully; not to say any thing of carioles being very frequently upset, and their contents, ladies, gentlemen, soup, poultry, or roast beef, tumbled into the snow, to the no small amusement of the rest of the party. It is also any thing but *excessively pleasant*, after having dined, danced, supped, and passed the evening in festive glee, enlivened by the song and the catch, to drive home in the middle of the night, let the wind blow, and the snow drift, as much as they please. Besides, there sometimes come on such *dreadful storms*, that neither man nor horse can shew their face to them. The consequence is, the party remain all night; the fiddlers again strike up the merry dance, and the whist players cut for partners; what cannot be cured must be endured. Daylight comes at last, and enables the party to take the road homeward without the danger of losing

their way, which most probably would have been the case with some of them had they attempted it in the course of the night. The little hardships, disasters, or inconveniences, of these country parties, give a zest however to the more elegant amusements of the town.

When it is necessary to deviate from the beaten track, or to cross the woods or fields, snow-shoes are used. They are made of a kind of net-work, fixed on a frame, shaped like a boy's paper kite; they are about two feet long, and eighteen inches broad, and therefore take in so much of the surface of the snow, that they sink but a very few inches. The military, in Canada, are all provided with snow shoes, and are marched out on them, that it may be no novelty in case of their taking the field in winter. For the same reason they are sometimes encamped amongst the snow.

Could the husbandman, the labourer, and all those whose trade or profession in Canada lead them to work in the open air, follow their occupations all the year round, it certainly would be of great advantage to the country, and to the people. At present, a great proportion of the people are obliged to live twelve months on six months' work, which implies their receiving double wages. This is certainly the case; wages are very high; 4, 5, to 6s. a day are given, according to the kind of work, and merit of the workman. The idleness of their winter life has other bad effects. It generates habits prejudicial to exertion; so that, even in summer, they do not perform so much work as men who are in habits of industry all the year round; and the desire they evince for spirituous liquors is strong and ruinous. Yet, under all these disadvantages, Canada, as well as Russia, may become a great, trading, and populous country.

LANGUAGE.—The French language is still retained by the descendants of the French settlers in Lower Canada. It is evidently the interest of the British government, as well as of the Canadians, that the English language only should be spoken; but the means of effecting this desirable change have been strangely neglected. English schools have indeed been established in some parts of the country; but few, or none, of the Canadians, have ever sent their children to them.

TOWNS.—Samuel de Champlain, who founded Quebec in the year 1608, deserves immortal honours for the judiciousness of his choice. It

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ever has been considered, and probably ever will be considered, as the capital of the Canadas. It certainly is the key of the river St. Lawrence, which contracts suddenly opposite to the city, being only about a mile in breadth; and widens immediately above the city. The grand battery of Quebec is opposite to the narrowest part of the river, and is an extensive range of very heavy ordnance, which, if properly served, must destroy any vessels which might attempt to pass, or come near enough to injure the town. The river opposite to Quebec is about 100 feet in depth, and affords good anchorage. For a considerable way above Quebec it is navigable for ships of any size.

The site of Quebec seems to have been destined by nature for the capital of an empire.—Above the island of Orleans, the St. Lawrence expands, and a basin is formed by the junction of a river called the St. Charles, which takes its course through a plain, separated from the great river by a ridge of high land, about nine miles in length from a place called Cape Rouge, to Cape Diamond. The general breadth of this ridge is from one to two miles. Cape Diamond is a bold promontory, advancing into the river St. Lawrence, of an elevation of 250 feet above the river, nearly perpendicular; and the bank the whole way to Cape Rouge is nearly of the same elevation, rising from the river almost perpendicular: the ridge slopes towards the north till it reaches the valley, through which the river St. Charles runs. This ridge of land has every appearance of having been an island, surrounded by the great river.

On the north-east, or lower end of the peninsula, Quebec is situated; and the line of its fortifications runs from the river St. Charles, across, to the top of the bank which overlooks the St. Lawrence; the distance is about half a mile: and from the line of fortification to the point of Cape Diamond the distance is about a quarter of a mile: within this space stands the city of Quebec. It consists of an Upper and Lower Town: the Upper Town is much elevated above the Lower Town, and separated from it by a line of steep rocks. Formerly the river St. Lawrence, at high water, came up close to these rocks; but as the tide rises and falls here about fifteen feet, it gave an opportunity of taking from the river a considerable space; wharfs were built at low water mark, and even at some places beyond it, and the intermediate ground

filled up to such a height that it remained dry at high water. Upon this situation streets were laid out, and houses built. They are of considerable breadth, and the houses are large and commodious; those next the river have attached to them very extensive warehouses, and vessels come close to the wharfs to discharge their cargoes.

The Lower Town is not included in the fortifications, but the passes to it are commanded by the batteries in the line of fortification, which surrounds the Upper Town; so that the approach by land to the Lower Town will hardly be attempted by an enemy. The communication from the Lower Town to the Upper Town is by a winding street; at the top of which is a fortified gate. At the entrance of this gate is a large area, in which is situated the house (dignified with the title of a palace) in which the bishops of Quebec formerly resided; at present it is used for public offices, and accommodates the supreme council and house of assembly. Beyond the palace is the grand battery. To the left, not far from the entrance of the gate, is another area or square; and on the side next the river is the Chateau de St. Louis, in which the governor resides. Opposite to the chateau, on the other side of the square, is the English church, a very elegant building; and the court house, where elegance is not so conspicuous. On the north side of the square is a very handsome building, erected for, and used as, a tavern, hotel, and assembly room. From the area of the market-place different streets diverge, leading to the different gates of the city.

There are three nunneries in Quebec, the Hotel Dieu, the Ursulines, and the General Hospital. The nuns here are not so useless, however, as those in the south of Europe; they employ themselves in teaching young girls reading and needlework. No where do the Roman Catholics and Protestants live on better terms than here. They go to each other's marriages, baptisms, and burials without scruple; nay, they have even been known to make use of the same church for religious worship, one party using it in the forenoon, and the other in the afternoon. The monasteries are mostly extinct, and many of the Catholic clergy are distinguished for intelligence and liberality.

There are few objects of curiosity in Quebec. The houses are generally of stone; small, ugly, and inconvenient. A large garrison is main-

tained, but five thousand soldiers would be necessary to man the works. The inhabitants are supposed to be ten thousand, about two thirds being French; and the presence of the governor, courts, and garrison, conspire to render it gay and lively.

The Upper Town of Quebec being very elevated, enjoys fine air, and a most commanding view of the surrounding country. 'I have seen most of the fine views of Europe,' writes Mr. Gray; 'and I can safely say, they do not surpass, perhaps they do not equal, that from the flagstaff of Quebec on Cape Diamond. The majestic St. Lawrence under your feet, receiving the waters of the river St. Charles, and forming the bason of Quebec, from three to four miles across;—further on you see the river dividing itself into two branches, forming the beautiful island of New Orleans;—on the opposite side of the great river, a finely wooded country, terminating at Point Levi, conceals the course and bed of one of the branches of the river,—the island of Orleans, the falls of Montmorency, strike the observer; and the villages of Beauport, Charlebourg, and Lorette, appear at a distance, and render the woods in which they are embosomed more interesting. The eye follows the northern branch of the St. Lawrence till it is lost amongst the distant mountains. To the southward you look over a level country for upwards of sixty miles, till the view is bounded by mountains. This extensive tract is still in a great measure in a state of nature;—nothing to be seen but the stately forest in all its majesty. It is difficult to imagine a more happy blending of art and nature;—villages, country houses, cottages, corn fields,—are combined with primeval woods, fine rivers, beautiful islands, magnificent waterfalls, towering hills, and lofty mountains.'

Commerce has made, and will continue, Quebec as the first city in the Canadas; perhaps it may become the first in America, for it has a much more extensive communication with the interior of America than the new city of Washington or any other city in America. Neither the Patowmac, Chesapeake, Delaware, nor Hudson's river, are at all to be compared to the St. Lawrence, either in magnitude or extent of back country. It is worthy of notice that a person may go from Quebec to New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi, by water the whole way, except about the space of one mile from

the source of the Illinois river, to the source of a river which falls into Lake Michigan.

Montreal.—Montreal is situated on an island; but the island is so large in proportion to the water which surrounds it, that you are not sensible of its insularity. A branch of the river Ottawas, which falls into the St. Lawrence above Montreal, takes a northerly direction, and forms the island, which is about thirty miles in length by ten in breadth. The city of Montreal is situated near the upper end of it, on the south side of the island, at the distance of about 180 miles from Quebec.

Montreal was once surrounded by a wall, which served to defend it against any sudden attack from the Indians; but as this is now no longer to be dreaded, the wall is about to be removed, that the town may be enlarged with the greater facility. The St. Lawrence comes close to the town on the south side, where there is a great depth of water, but vessels have much difficulty to get at it.

Montreal may be said to be a handsome town. Its streets are regular and airy, and contain many handsome and commodious houses. It is fully as large and as populous as Quebec, containing about 10,000 people, the great mass of whom are Canadians. Its suburbs, too, are extensive. It has suffered greatly from fire at different times, and the precautions taken to prevent the spreading of conflagration exceed even those of Quebec; for, in addition to the roofs being generally covered with tinned plates, the windows have outside shutters, covered with plate iron.

The island of Montreal is wholly in a state of cultivation; and it is surrounded by a country generally cultivated. What adds much to its consequence is, its being situated near the *embouchure* of several rivers, which bring down from the countries through which they flow a great deal of very valuable produce.

Although the St. Lawrence is navigable for large vessels as high up as Montreal, yet the navigation above Quebec is attended with so many inconveniencies, that in general it is found more advantageous for the vessels to stop at Quebec, and for such of their cargoes as come from Montreal, to be brought down in river craft.

The chief trade is in furs. The North-west Company consists of a number of merchants associated for the purposes of trading with the

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Indians in furs. They formed the association in the year 1784; and have carried on the trade with great spirit and success. Those who manage the concerns of the company reside in Montreal; they receive a compensation for their trouble, besides their share of the profits of the concern. From Montreal they send up the country large quantities of goods, to be bartered with the Indians for furs. For the conveyance of these goods, and for bringing back the furs, they have employed, generally, about fifty canoes, and upwards of a thousand people; such as canoe-men (styled *voyageurs*), guides, clerks, &c. The capital employed in this trade, in goods alone, is upwards of 100,000*l*.

The goods are made up in packages of about 80*lbs*. for the convenience of stowing, and of carrying across these places, where the loaded canoe cannot pass. In many places they meet with rapids and falls, which arrest their progress: in such cases, they unload the canoe, and carry both it and its cargo to the next canoeable water. Six men carry one of the largest canoes: its load weighs generally from four to five tons; consisting of a number of small packages, which they carry very expeditiously.

The canoes, when they take their departure from La Chine, are loaded to within about six inches of the gunwale, or edge of the canoe.—Instead of oars, they use paddles, which they handle with great dexterity. They strike off, singing a song peculiar to themselves, called the *Voyageur Song*: one man takes the lead, and all the others join in a chorus. It is extremely pleasing to see people who are toiling hard, display such marks of good humour and contentment, although they know, that for a space of more than 2000 miles their exertions must be unremitting, and their living very poor; for, in the little space allowed in the canoe for provisions, there are none of the luxuries, and a very scanty supply of the necessaries of life.—The song is of great use: they keep time with their paddles to its measured cadence, and, by uniting their force, increase its effect considerably. The Canadian is of a lively, gay temper; well calculated for the arduous task which he has to perform in his capacity of *voyageur*.

The character of the *voyageur* resembles very much that of the British sailor: he is equally rough in his manners and appearance—equally thoughtless and improvident: he endures the greatest fatigue without complaining, and obeys

implicitly the orders of the person who has charge of the canoe (his *bourgeois*, as he is called), without ever pretending to question or doubt their propriety: he paddles and sings, and eats and sleeps, regardless of to-morrow. Like the jolly tar, he no sooner receives his wages than he commences a life of extravagance and debauchery. The sailor knows that money at sea can be of no use to him, and he hastens to rid himself of his gold. The *voyageur*, in like manner, knows that money is of no use in the interior of America; and he, too, hastens to get quit of his dollars. Although they act in different situations, yet their minds are operated on in the same way: hence arises a resemblance of character.

The canoes go many hundred miles up this river, till they meet with rivers which discharge in Lake Huron, from thence they get into Lake Superior, and so on to the Grand Portage, where they discharge the goods they have taken up, and are again loaded with the furs that have been got in exchange for the preceding year's investment. They do not return by the same course, but by way of Detroit, and through Lakes Erie and Ontario. Montreal is at the head of the ship-navigation from the ocean, and the bateaux and canoe-navigation from and to Upper Canada must commence and terminate at La Chine near Montreal. From these circumstances Montreal bids fair to rival Quebec in commerce:—it is more convenient as a depot for produce. But as Quebec must ever be the great shipping place, there general merchants will find many inducements to settle.

At the grand egress of the river St. Lawrence, on the Lake Ontario, near what is called the lake of a thousand islands, stands the town of Kingston, more remarkable from its position than any other circumstance. The forts of Niagara and Detroit belong to the southern side of the boundary. The little town of Trois Rivières, or Three Rivers, stands between Quebec and Montreal, and is chiefly remarkable for the resort of the savages: but though it contains little more than 250 houses, it is considered as the third town in British America. Sorelle was founded in 1787 for the American loyalists, but contains only one hundred scattered houses: it is at the distance of fifteen leagues from Montreal towards Quebec; and the chief business is ship-building.

MANUFACTURES.—A variety of articles for

domestic purposes, which used formerly to be imported from Britain, are now manufactured in Canada; particularly stoves, bar-iron, and cooking utensils; also leather, hats, soap, and candles. Canada has always been famous for the manufacture of snuff; and a quantity of sugar, and coarse linens and woollens for home consumption, are also manufactured.

COMMERCE.—Wheat is the most considerable article of exportation from Canada; upwards of one million bushels have been exported in one year; not half that quantity however was exported on an average of five years ending in 1805. The next articles of consequence in the list of exports, are flour and biscuit. The average amount of flour for five years, ending 1805, was 19,822 barrels at 42s. 6d. per barrel, 42,123l. 17s. 6d.

The fur trade of Canada, in point of value, and of importance to Great Britain, is nearly equal to any other branch of the Canada trade. The duty paid in England on furs and skins, imported from Canada, amounted per annum on an average of four years, ending 1806, to 22,053l. The lumber trade is of more real value to Britain, because timber is of more real use in society. The corn trade is, perhaps, more valuable to the Canadians than the fur trade; but the trade in furs employs a great number of people, and a large capital.

The North-west Company, who have entirely monopolized to themselves the fur trade, are a self-created company, not acknowledged by government, but who have united their capital and exertions for their mutual benefit. As they have at present no competitors in the north-west territory, they have the trade in their own power in a great measure: but they are obliged to pay a considerable price for the skins, because the Indians have been so long accustomed to the trade, that they have long ago learned that a beaver skin is worth more than a two-penny knife, or a sixpenny trinket.

When the Berlin and Milan decrees threatened to shut all the ports of Europe against Britain, the government took some pains to introduce the cultivation of *hemp* into Canada, a measure which promises to become very successful. But the produce of the forests are articles of the greatest importance amongst the exports of Canada. Staves are exported to a great amount, and some very handsome ships are annually built by contract at Quebec and Montreal. A quantity of fish, and pot and pearl

ashes, is also exported; but as has been observed, the export of furs is of the most advantage. Besides the North-west Company, another company which trades to the south-west, and is generally termed the Mic'ilimackinack Company, has been lately established. The Hudson's Bay Company conduct their business on a very narrow scale, and with little benefit to the public, which has induced both Mr. Burke and Mr. Mackenzie to condemn the monopoly they hold. The latter gentleman has given a most interesting account of this curious trade.

The total exports from Quebec alone in 1808 amounted to 895,949l. and the number of vessels cleared from the custom-house was 334, equal to 70,275 tons, and navigated by 3330 seamen. In the year 1806 the tonnage was only 33,996; which clearly shows the natural amelioration of the country, arising from the embargo in America.

The principal imports are spirits, wines, tobacco, sugar, salt, and provisions for the troops. Manufactured articles are also imported to a great amount from England.

Political Geography.

RELIGION.—The religion is the Roman Catholic, but the British settlers follow their own modes of worship. There are only twelve clergymen of the church of England, including the bishop of Quebec; while the Catholic clergy are 126.

GOVERNMENT.—By an act passed in 1791 a legislative council, and an assembly, are appointed for each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, having power to make laws with the consent of the governor; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council is to consist of seven members for Upper Canada, and fifteen for the Lower province, summoned by the governor under the king's authority, and nominated during their lives, except forfeited by an absence of four years, or by paying allegiance to a foreign power. The house of assembly is to consist of fifty members from Lower Canada, and sixteen from Upper Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the towns and districts. These councils are to assemble at least once every year; and the house of assembly continues four years, except in case of

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prior dissolution. 'The governor, together with such of the executive council as shall be appointed by the king for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil jurisdiction for hearing and determining appeals; subject, however, to such appeals from their sentence as heretofore existed. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common soccage; and also in Lower Canada where the grantee shall desire it, subject nevertheless to alterations by an act of the legislature. British America is superintended by an officer styled Governor General of the four British provinces in North America, who, besides other powers, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the four provinces, and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has a lieutenant governor, who, in the absence of the governor general, has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.'

The policy of giving Canada such a form of government is very questionable. But the English are so fond of their constitution, that they think it is only necessary to shew it to all the world, and it must be accepted with joy.—The impossibility of establishing in an instant a free constitution, amongst an ignorant and superstitious people, is not considered. And how can legitimate Frenchmen, the descendants of men who never formed a correct idea themselves of the nature of civil and religious liberty, impress it upon the minds of their children? or how can men who can neither read nor write, which is the case with many of the members of the house of assembly, discharge the important duties of a legislator? This fact, which is stated by travellers of respectability, of itself evinces that it was too soon to give the French Canadians a share of the government. If Upper and Lower Canada had but one house of assembly, the English party would always have the ascendancy; but Canada being divided into two provinces, and the French Canadians in Lower Canada forming the majority, the government of the country is virtually placed in their hands. A union of the two provinces, in government, laws, and language, would be equally advantageous to the colonists and the mother country.

MILITARY FORCE.—In Lower Canada there are about 60,000 militia. They are mustered at stated periods; and in the towns, they are clothed and armed, and have learned the business of soldiers so well, that they are fit to be bri-

gaded with the troops of the line. In the late war their courage and conduct were excellent; which, no doubt, arose from their hatred to the inhabitants of the United States. But, notwithstanding their quiet and inoffensive habits, it is doubtful how they would act in case Canada was invaded by the French, for whom they must have a natural predilection.

REVENUE.—The civil list, including the whole civil expenditure of the province of Lower Canada for 1806, amounted to 36,213*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* sterling; but of this sum the province paid only 16,227*l.* 14*s.* 0*d.* as appears by the accounts laid before the house of assembly; the remainder was paid out of the *military chest*, from funds raised by draughts on the British government. The military establishment, with repairs of forts, &c. is stated at 100,000*l.*; and the like sum for presents to the savages, and salaries to officers employed among them for trade, &c. in Upper Canada. But the advantages of the commerce are thought to counterbalance these expences.

Historical Geography.

HISTORY.—When we reflect on the number of years this country has been in the possession of Europeans, we cannot help being surprised that it should still retain so much of its original rudeness: it is now about 260 years since it was taken possession of by the French. The infant colony seems to have been very much neglected by Old France, who did not by any means watch over it with a motherly care.—From the year 1535, when Quebec was first discovered, to the year 1664, a period of 129 years, the government and trade of Canada were in the possession of private merchants holding under patents from the king of France. In the year 1664, the king assumed the government; a governor was appointed; but the trade of the country was given exclusively to the *Company des Indes Occidentales*. The English had by this time established colonies in New England, and at Boston, who did every thing in their power to weaken and annoy the French colony, which they found interfered in their trade with the Indians. Indeed, the English attacked and took Quebec so far back as the year 1629; but it was restored to the French by the treaty of St. Germain in 1632. The French government, even after they took

the colony under their own immediate care, seem to have paid more attention to the fur trade, to exploring the interior of the country, cultivating the friendship of the Indians, and spreading the Roman Catholic religion, than to the improvement of the country in agriculture, the promotion of the arts, and the domestic pursuits of civil society.

In 1759 General Wolfe, with infinite labour, contrived to carry his little army to the top of the heights on the St. Lawrence, and took his stand on the plains of Abraham. Montcalm, the French general, vainly confident, marched out of the city, engaged the English, and was beat close to the walls. It was very unaccountable that the French should resolve to come out of a strong fortification (where they might long have resisted the assailants) and put themselves on a footing with their enemies. Besides the troops in the city of Quebec, the French had ten thousand men encamped at Beauport, within a few miles of Quebec. If an arrangement had taken place with those troops, that they should attack Wolfe at the moment the garrison sallied forth, his little army must have been cut to pieces. To this error we owe Quebec. General Montcalm, as well as the brave Wolfe, fell in the engagement; very different, however, must have been their feelings in their last moments. The conduct of the Frenchman, in rashly sacrificing his troops and the interests of his country, could not bear reflection. Wolfe saw his troops triumphant; they had beaten the enemy: he died in the arms of victory.

General Montgomery, in the winter of 1775, besieged Quebec with an American army, and when reinforced by General Arnold attacked the city by assault on the night of the 31st December. They were repulsed;—the general and two of his aids-de-camp were killed. The blockade continued during the winter: but on the arrival of troops from England in the spring, the siege was raised, and the Americans driven out of the province.

The different attempts and their failures, lately made by the Union to separate Canada from Great Britain, are well known; and will tend, it is probable, to weaken those preposterous desires for conquest, which seem to actuate the American government.

Gaspé.

Before closing this account of Canada, it may

be proper to mention a part of it separately. It is called the *Inferior district of Gaspé*; and is situated to the southward of the river St. Lawrence, from Cape Chat downwards, and comprehends a considerable extent of country on the west coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, in which are found two deep bays, viz. Gaspé Bay and Chaleur Bay.

The district of Gaspé has a governor appointed by the king, and there is an inferior court of King's Bench for the decision of such civil suits as do not exceed 20*l.* and to take cognizance of criminal matters that are not capital. At present the population, reckoning resident settlers only, is not more than 3,500. In the summer time a great many more are attracted for the purpose of carrying on the fishery, which is done in all its different stages. The bays and coasts of Gaspé abound with codfish, salmon, and many other sorts of fish. There are several fishing stations along the coast; those of most importance are at Percé and Chaleur Bay. The trade employs annually about a dozen square rigged vessels, besides a great many small craft. Fish, to the value of 60,000*l.* a year, including what is sent to Quebec to be re-shipped for the West Indies, and elsewhere, or used in the country, are cured and sent to a market. The greatest part, however, is sent direct from Gaspé to the West Indies or Mediterranean.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

The ancient province of Nova Scotia was granted by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, afterwards earl of Stirling; and the origin of the title of baronets of Nova Scotia is well known. It was afterwards seized by the French, who seem indeed to have been the first possessors, and by whom it was called Acadie; but it was surrendered to England by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. In 1784, as already stated, it was divided into two provinces, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In the former there are two considerable bays, and a river of some length, called St. John's; while that of St. Croix divides New Brunswick from the province of Main, belonging to the United States. The river of St. John is navigable for vessels of fifty tons about sixty miles; and for boats about two hundred; the tide flowing about eighty. The fish are salmon, bass, and sturgeon; and the banks, enriched by the annual freshes, are

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often fertile, level, and covered with large trees. This river affords a common and near route to Quebec. There are many lakes, among which the Grand Lake is 30 miles long, and about nine broad. The great chain of Apalachian mountains passes on the north-west of this province, probably expiring at the gulf of St. Lawrence. The capital is Frederick-town on the river St. John, about ninety miles from its estuary. St. Ann's is almost opposite; and there are some other settlements nearer the bay of Fundi, with a fort called Howe. There is a tribe of savages called the Marechites, estimated at 140 fighting men. The chief products are timber and fish.

NOVA SCOTIA.

This province is about 300 miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, being inferior in size to New Brunswick. There are several considerable rivers, among which that of Annapolis is navigable fifteen miles, for ships of 100 tons. The bay of Fundi, between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, extends fifty leagues inland; the ebbing and flowing of the tide being from forty-five to sixty feet. It is called by the French Acadie, has New England and the Atlantic Ocean to the south and south-west, and the river and gulf of St. Lawrence to the north and north-east. Though it lies in a very favourable part of the temperate zone, it has a winter of an almost insupportable length and coldness, continuing at least seven months in the year; to this immediately succeeds, without the intervention of any thing that may be called spring, a summer of a heat as violent as the cold, though of no long continuance; and they are wrapt in the gloom of a perpetual fog, even long after the summer season has commenced. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in Nova Scotia which do not yield to the best land in New England. The capital is Halifax, on the bay of Chebucto, well situated for the fishery, with communications by land and water with other parts of this province, and New Brunswick. There is a good harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war, employed in protecting the fishing vessels, is laid up in the winter. The town is entrenched,

with forts of timber, and is said to contain 15 or 16,000 inhabitants, a superior population to that of Quebec. Shelburn, towards the south-west, once contained 600 families; Guisbory about 250. The harbour of Annapolis is excellent; but it is an inconsiderable hamlet. There are many forests. The Micmacs, an Indian tribe of about 300 fighters, dwell to the east of Halifax. Supplies of grain are sent from Britain; from whence also are exported to these provinces linen and woollen cloths, and other articles to the amount of about 20,000*l.*; and the returns are timber and fish worth about 50,000*l.* The chief fishery is that of cod near the Cape Sable coast. Near Cape Canceo there are remarkable cliffs of white gypsum. About twenty-three leagues from the cape is the Isle de Sable, or of Sand, consisting wholly of that substance, mixed with white transparent stones, the hills being milk-white cones, and some 146 feet above the sea. This strange isle has ponds of fresh water; with junipers, blueberries, and cranberries, and some grass and vetches, which serve to support a few horses, cows, and hogs. The bay of Fundi presents an infinite variety of picturesque and sublime scenery; and the Bore rises to the height of seventy feet.

ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

This island is attached to the province of Lower Canada, though divided from Nova Scotia only by a strait of one mile in breadth. It is about a hundred miles in length; and according to the French authors was discovered at a very early period, about A. D. 1500, by the Normans and Bretons, who navigated these seas; and, being supposed a part of the continent, was called Cape Breton, a name absurdly retained. They did not, however, take possession of it till 1713, when they erected fort Dauphin: the harbour being found difficult, Louisburg was built in 1720, the settlers being chiefly from Europe, as the Acadians, or French of Nova Scotia, did not choose to leave that country. In 1745 Cape Breton was taken by some troops from New England; and has since remained subject to the British crown. The climate is cold and foggy, not only from the proximity of Newfoundland, but from numerous lakes and forests. The soil is chiefly mere moss, and has been found unfit for agriculture. The chief towns are Sidney and Louisburg;

the whole inhabitants of the isle do not exceed one thousand. The fur trade is inconsiderable, but the fishery very important, this island being esteemed the chief seat; and the value of this trade, while in the French possession, was computed at a million sterling. There is a very extensive bed of coal in this island, in a horizontal direction, not more than six or eight feet below the surface; but it has been chiefly used as ballast: in one of the pits a fire was kindled by accident, and remains unextinguished.

The island of St. John is at no great distance to the west of Cape Breton, being about sixty miles in length by thirty in breadth, and is attached to the province of Nova Scotia. The French inhabitants, about 4000, surrendered, with Cape Breton, in 1745. It is said to be fertile, with several streams. A lieutenant-governor resides at Charlotte town; and the inhabitants of the island are computed at 5000.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

This island is situated in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the coast of Nova Scotia. It is about 120 miles long, and much intersected by arms of the sea, along which is a thinly scattered population, estimated at about 7 or 8000. The lands of this island were granted in the year 1767, in several large lots, of which a great proportion fell into the hands of persons who entirely neglected their improvement. This place has lately attracted much attention, from the patriotic exertions of the Earl of Selkirk, who, in order to turn the current of emigration from the highlands of Scotland to the United States, conceived the plan of forming a settlement here, where the highlanders might continue their old customs, and enjoy all the pleasures that arise from the proud spirit of claniship. About 800 of these people, accordingly, reached the island August, 1803, under the superintendence of this young nobleman. Each settler was allowed, at a moderate price, from 50 to 100 acres. This colony has not disappointed the expectations of the founder, and seems to promise a desirable retreat to the superfluous population in the highlands, and also to constitute a valuable barrier to the British possessions in America.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Ca-

bot in 1496, who also founded the prior claim of England to the North American shores as far south as Florida. This discovery, like that of Columbus and others, was unintentional, the design being merely to penetrate to the East Indies. Those authors, who wonder that no colonists were sent, only shew their ignorance of the intentions of the first navigators: as at that period there was not one man in Europe who could have formed the smallest idea of the benefits of a colony. It was the success of the Spanish colonies, allured by gold alone, that, towards the end of the sixteenth century, enlarged the ideas of mankind; but even then Raleigh's transcendent mind held out gold to all his followers, as the sole inducement. The island of Newfoundland is about 320 miles in length and breadth, the shape approaching to a triangle. It seems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, small pine, and fir, yet on the south-west side there are lofty head-lands. The country has scarcely been penetrated above thirty miles; but there are numerous ponds and morasses, with some dry barrens. The great fishery on the banks of Newfoundland begins about the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September. The cod is either dried for the Mediterranean; or what are called mud-fish, barrelled up in a pickle of salt, for the English market. These banks and the island are environed with constant fog, or snow and sleet; the former supposed by some to be occasioned by the superior warmth of the gulf stream from the West Indies. The fishery is computed to yield about 300,000*l.* a year, from the cod sold in the Catholic countries. The island of Newfoundland, after many disputes with the French, was ceded to England 1713, the French having permission to dry their nets on the northern shores; and in 1763 it was stipulated that they might fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence; and the small isles of St. Pierre and Miquelon were ceded to them. The French, by the treaty 1783, were to enjoy their fisheries on the northern and western coasts, the inhabitants of the United States having the same privileges as before their independence; and the preliminaries of October, 1801, confirm the privileges granted to the French.

The chief towns are St. John in the south-east, with Placentia in the south, and Bonavista in the east; but not above a thousand

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families remain during the winter. In the spring a small squadron is sent to protect the fisheries and settlements, the admiral being also governor of the island, its sole consequence depending on the fishery; and there are two lieutenant-governors, one at St. John's, another at Placentia.

These dreary shores are strongly contrasted by the Bermudas or Sommer Islands, lying almost at an equal distance between Nova Scotia and the West Indies; but as they are nearer to the coast of Carolina than to any other land, it seems more proper to arrange them here than under any other division.

THE BERMUDAS, OR SOMMER ISLANDS.

They are four in number, and were discovered by the Spaniards under John Bermudas, in 1527; but being afterwards neglected by them, they were again disclosed by the shipwreck of Sir George Sommer in 1609; which event seems to have induced Shakespear to describe them as ever vexed with storms. Another poet, Waller, who resided there some time, on his being condemned for a plot against the parliament in 1643, describes them in very different colours, as enjoying a perpetual spring. In 1725 the benevolent and eccentric bishop Berkeley pro-

posed to erect a college in these islands for the conversion of the savage Americans! It appears that the largest island called Bermuda resembles a hook, the great sound fronting the north. The length is about 35 geographical miles, the breadth seldom two. The other isles are St. George's, St. David's, and Somerset; with several islets, and numerous rocks. The town of St. George contains about five hundred houses, built of a soft free-stone, probably like that of Bath; the inhabitants being about three thousand, and those of all the isles perhaps about nine thousand. There is a governor, council, and general assembly; the religion being that of the church of England. The people are chiefly occupied in building light ships of their cedars, in which they trade to North America and the West Indies. It would appear that these remote isles were uninhabited when settled by the English, but a good history and description of the Bermudas might afford a pleasing addition to the geographical library. Mr. Morse says that the blacks are here twice as numerous as the whites; and that a great part of their trade consists in carrying salt to America. The women are said to be handsome, and both sexes fond of dress, which is perhaps more laudable than the opposite extreme.

NATIVE TRIBES AND UNCONQUERED COUNTRIES.

THE arrangement of this division shall chiefly pursue the order of the discoveries from the east towards the west. On this plan Greenland shall be followed by Labrador, and the territory belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company. Some account may be then given of the central parts and tribes; which shall be followed by the discoveries of the western coast and islands by the Russians, Cook, Vancouver, La Perouse, and other navigators, and by the late enterprising traveller Mackenzie.

GREENLAND.

The discovery of this extensive region, which,

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whether continental or insular, must ever continue to be regarded as belonging to North America, has been already mentioned as having been effected by the people of Iceland in the tenth century; the distance, according to the best maps, being about eight degrees of longitude in lat. 66 deg. or nearly 200 geographical miles; but some maps reduce it to five degrees, or not more than 130 geographical miles. The intercourse between this colony and Denmark was maintained till the beginning of the fifteenth century, the last of seventeen bishops being named in 1406: and in that century, by the gradual increase of the arctic ice, the colony appears to have been completely imprisoned by

the frozen ocean; while on the west a range of impassable mountains and plains, covered with perpetual ice, precluded all access. The ancient settlement contained several churches and monasteries, the names and positions of which may be traced in the map by Torfaeus; from which it would seem that the colony extended over about 200 miles in the south-east extremity.—On the west some ruins of churches have also been discovered. In more recent times the western coast was chiefly explored by Davis, and other English navigators; but there was no attempt made to settle any colony. A pious Norwegian clergyman, named Egede, having probably read the book of Torfaeus published in 1715, was deeply impressed with the melancholy situation of this colony, if it should be found to exist; and in 1721 proceeded to the western shore, where he continued till 1735, preaching the gospel to the natives, his benevolent example having been since followed by several missionaries. The sect called Moravians began their settlements about thirty years after, being chiefly those of New Hernhuth and Lichtenfels. It is said that the country is inhabited as far as 76 deg.; but the Danish and Moravian settlements are chiefly in the southwest, though at one time there appears to have been a factory as far north as 73 deg. The natives have no conception of what we call Baffin's Bay; but say that in the north of their country there is a narrow strait which divides it from the continent of America.

This dreary country may be said to consist of rocks, ice, and snow; but in the southern parts there are some small junipers, willows, and birch. There are rein-deer, and some dogs resembling wolves, with arctic foxes and polar bears. Hares are common; and the walrus, and five kinds of seals, frequent the shores.—The birds, particularly sea and water fowl, are tolerably numerous; as are the fish; and the insects exceed ninety.

What is called the *ice blink* is an amazing congeries of ice, at the mouth of an inlet, the splendour of which is discerned at the distance of many leagues. It is said to extend in magnificent arches for about twenty-four miles.—The short summer is very warm, but foggy; and the northern lights diversify the gloom of winter. What is called the frost smoke bursts from cracks in the frozen ocean. The natives are short, with long black hair, small eyes, and

flat faces, being a branch of the Eskimos, or American Samoieds. They are short, brawny, and inclined to corpulency, and of a yellowish tawny complexion. They are, for the most part, healthy and vigorous, but short lived.—They never wash themselves with water, but lick their paws like the cat, and then rub their faces with them. They eat after their dogs without washing the dishes, devour the lice which devour them, and even lick the sweat which they scrape off from their faces with their knives. They subsist, in times of scarcity, on old skins, sea weeds, and reeds, dressed with train oil and fat. All sorts of offals are counted dainties with these savages. They, however, are fond of bread and butter when it can be procured, but retain an aversion to tobacco and spirituous liquors. Persons of rank are indulged with a plurality of wives; but, in general, they are content with one. They are inconceivably superstitious. When a woman is in labour the gossips hold a chamber pot over her head to hasten the delivery; and when a child is a year old, the mother licks and slabbars it all over, to render it, as she imagines, more strong and healthy.

At the winter solstice they assemble, and celebrate the return of the sun with feasting and dancing. All quarrels are decided by singing and dancing. A Greenlander who conceives himself injured composes a satirical poem; to which, at the appointed time, his antagonist retorts. The attendants confer the laurel on the victor, and afterwards the contending parties are the best friends.

The traffic of the Greenlanders is carried on altogether by barter. They glory in overreaching an European, but never cheat each other. They fish and hunt through the whole year.—Their huts have neither door nor chimney, the use of both being supplied by a vaulted passage. The floor is divided into apartments by skins, according to the number of families for which it is intended. These huts are well warmed with fires, and lighted by means of lamps filled with train oil, over which is hung the kettle in which their meat is boiled. Here they commonly sit all the day long, the women sewing and cooking, and the men carving their tackle and tools. It is supposed that they do not now exceed ten thousand, the number having been greatly reduced by the small-pox. Their canoes, in which one man proceeds to kill seals, are of a

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singular construction, and have sometimes been waited as far as the Orkneys.

The highest mountains are on the west side; and the three pinnacles of what is called the Stag's Horn are visible from sea at the distance of forty or sixty leagues. Crantz observes that the rocks are very full of clefts, commonly perpendicular, and seldom wider than half a yard, filled with spar, quartz, talc, and garnets. The rocks are generally rather vertical or little inclined, consisting of granite, with some sandstone and lapis olaris. Our author's imperfect mineralogy also indicates micaceous schistus, coarse marble, and serpentine; with asbestos and amianthus, crystals and black schorl. It is said that fluat of argill, a new substance, has been recently found in Greenland; perhaps this is the soft transparent stone of Crantz. The lapis olaris is of singular utility in Greenland, and the north of America, being used for lamps and culinary utensils. The soil consists of unfertile clay or sand. The winter is very severe; and the rocks often burst by the intensity of the frost. Above 66 deg. the sun does not set in the longest days, and at 64 deg. is not four hours beneath the horizon.

LABRADOR.

This large extent of coast was so named by the Portuguese navigator who made the first discovery. In the inland parts there were American savages, and on the coasts Iskimos; but the former have mostly retired to the south, and even the latter seem gradually to withdraw: neither people had the ingenuity of the Laplanders. There were here only a few factories, till the Moravian clergy formed little settlements, particularly at Nain, about 1764. To these missionaries we are indebted for the discovery of that elegant iridescent felspar, called the Labrador stone. It is said to have been first discovered in sailing through some lakes, where its bright hues were reflected from the water. The most rare colour is the scarlet.—Mr. Cartwright, who resided at intervals nearly sixteen years in this desolate country, has published a minute and prolix journal, which however gives a curious picture of its state, and appearances along the coast, for the inland parts have never been explored. His Indians seem to be Iskimos, and their manners are very filthy. He remarks that the grouse not only change

their colour in the winter, but that they then gain a large addition of white feathers. The porcupines resemble the beaver in size and shape; and he observed wolvereens. He who wishes to study the manners of bears may here find ample satisfaction. At a cataract, surrounded with elders, spruces, fir, larches, birch, and aspen, many salmon ascend, and the bears assemble in numbers to catch their favourite prey. Some dive after the fish, and do not appear till at the distance of seventy or eighty yards. Others seem to be loungers, who only come to see what is going forwards, and to enjoy the promenade and the spectacle. Our author counted thirty-two white bears, and three black ones. Rein deer also abound, and their venison is excellent. Mr. Cartwright contradicts the received accounts of the beaver, asserting that he never eats fish nor any animal food; but lives on the leaves and bark of such trees and shrubs as have not a resinous juice, and the roots of the water lily. Their sagacity is not so great as is generally supposed; but there is something so singular in their erect movements, that an illiterate observer pronounced them to be 'enchanted Christians.' Even the peaceable Iskimos are liable to savage contests; and, about 1736, in a quarrel concerning a young woman, a furious slaughter arose, in which neither sex nor age were spared. At the close of his third volume Mr. Cartwright gives a general idea of the country, and a thermometrical journal. So far as discovered, Labrador is generally hilly, and even mountainous; but the southern parts might be improved, though it would be difficult to guard against the white bears and wolves; and cattle must be housed for nine months in the year. The eastern coast exhibits a most barren and iron-bound appearance, the rocky mountains rising suddenly from the sea, with spots of black peat earth, producing stunted plants. Rivers, brooks, lakes, pools, and ponds, are abundant, rich in fish, and frequented by innumerable birds. Though springs be rare, the waters being mostly dissolved snow, yet swelled throats are unknown, though frequent in the alpine countries of Europe and Asia.—The eastern coast also presents thousands of islands, covered with flocks of sea fowl, particularly eider ducks; and in the larger isles there are deer, foxes, and hares. The fish are salmon, trout, pike, barbel, eels, and others. Inland the air is milder; there are many trees, and some

symptoms of fertility. The plants are wild celery, scurvy-grass, reddocks, and Indian salad. There are some appearances of iron: and the Eskimos now collect the Labrador spar on the shores of the sea and lakes, for the rocks have not been discovered. Perhaps this spar was the shining stone brought from Labrador by one of our early navigators, as a specimen of gold ore. The birds are common to arctic regions, and the animals are mostly of the fur kind, in which trade our author was engaged. The natives are mountaineers and Eskimos; the former resembling gipsies, with somewhat of French features from a mixture of Canadian blood. They chiefly live on rein deer, and also kill foxes, martins, and beavers. They live in wigwams, a kind of tents covered with deer skin and birch rind; and are a sort of Roman Catholics, being anxious to visit the priests at Quebec. The Eskimos are the same people with the Greenlanders, whose manners are minutely described by Crantz. They use sledges drawn by dogs, as in Asia. Remains of seals and oily substances have a remarkable effect on the ground, so as to produce rich crops of grass on spots formerly only sprinkled with heath.

HUDSON'S BAY.

The inland sea commonly called Hudson's Bay was explored in 1610; and a charter for planting and improving the country, and carrying on trade, was granted to a company in 1670. The Hudson's Bay Company has since retained a claim to the most extensive territories, on the west, south, and east, of that inland sea, supposed to extend from 70 to 115 deg. and allowing the degree only thirty miles, the length will be 1350 geographical miles, and the medial breadth about 350. This vast extent of ice and snow is, however, of little consequence considered in itself; and it is not understood that the company gain great wealth. An able writer has also defended them against the invidious charge of obstructing geographical knowledge for the sake of commercial monopoly.—The journey of Mr. Hearne is indeed a manifest though tardy proof of the contrary. The annual exports are about 16,000*l*.; and the returns, which yield a considerable revenue to government, perhaps amount to 30,000*l*. The North-west Company, lately established at Montreal, has also considerably reduced the profits;

but an enquiry into the state of this company, and of their territories, might be an object of some importance, and might perhaps lead to great improvements in the mode of conducting the commerce, and deriving every possible advantage from these extensive territories and seas. The establishment of factories, here called forts, and which sometimes contain small garrisons, and other peculiar circumstances, seem more adapted to the powers of a commercial company, than of private traders; and even the example and success of the North-west Company seem to authorise that of Hudson's Bay. But they ought strictly to attend to the character of their servants, who, as Mr. Cartwright observes, will sometimes kill an Indian in preference to a deer.

The regions around Hudson's Bay, and that of Labrador, have, by a miserable compliment to the parent country, been sometimes called New Britain, a name not admitted in French or English maps. The parts on the west of Hudson's Bay have also been called New North and New South Wales: while that on the east is styled East Main. In the south, James's Bay stretches inland about 300 miles by about 150 in breadth; and the most valuable settlements are in that vicinity, as Albany fort, Moose fort, and East Main factory. Further to the south, and on the confines of Upper Canada, are Brunswick house, Frederick house, and some others, which, perhaps, belong to the North-west Company. In the north, Severn house is at the mouth of a large river, which seems to flow from the lake of Winnipeg. York fort stands on Nelson river; and still further to the north is Churchill fort, which seems the furthest settlement in that direction. To the west the Hudson's Bay Company had extended little further than Hudson's house; while the superior spirit of the North-west Company has nearly approached the Pacific. The most important rivers are the Nelson or Saskashawin, and the Severn; the comparative course of the latter scarcely exceeding 400 British miles, but of great breadth and depth. In the south the Albany, Moose, Abitib, and Harricana, are the most considerable; but all the rivers are impeded with falls and shoals. Near that singular inlet called Chesterfield there are many lakes, but the barbarous names would neither edify nor entertain the reader; nor is it likely that they should ever become memorable in natural

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or civil history. The sea of Hudson commonly presents bold rocky shores; but at intervals there are marshes and large beaches. There are several high islands, the largest of which in the north has been little explored; and in what is called Baffin's Bay (if such a sea exist), some maps and charts admit a very large central island called James Island, which others entirely neglect.

Even in lat. 57 deg. the winters are extremely severe; the ice on the rivers is eight feet thick, and brandy coagulates. The rocks burst with a horrible noise, equal to that of heavy artillery, and the splinters are thrown to an amazing distance. Mock suns, and haloes, are not unfrequent; and the sun rises and sets with a large cone of yellowish light. The aurora-borealis diffuses a variegated splendour, which equals that of the full moon; and the stars sparkle with fiery redness. The fish in Hudson Sea are far from numerous; and the whale fishery has been attempted without success. There are few shell fish; and the quadrupeds and birds correspond with those of Labrador and Canada. The northern indigenes are evidently Eskimos. They are of a deep tawny colour, and inferior in size to the generality of Europeans. They are flat-visaged, and have short noses; their hair is black and very coarse; and their hands and feet remarkably small. Their dress is entirely of skins; and the females are distinguished by their upper garment being ornamented with a tail, and their boots very wide, in which they occasionally place their children, but the youngest is always carried on their back, in the hood of their jacket. They have no sort of bread, but live chiefly on the flesh of seal, deer, fish, and birds. In the winter they live in caverns sunk in the earth; and in summer occupy tents, made circular with poles, and covered with skins. They have no sort of government, and no man is superior to another, but as he excels in strength or in courage, and in having the greatest number of wives and children.—They have no marriage ceremony; a wife is considered as a property; and a husband lends one of his wives to a friend. The women are mere drudges, doing every thing except procuring food. These people cannot reckon numerically beyond six, and their compound numbers reach no farther than twenty-one; every thing beyond this is a multitude. On the whole, they are represented to be a docile

and good tempered people; and, like all other savages, much addicted to superstitious observances.

There are other savages in the south, that resemble the mountaineers of Labrador. These people subsist by the chase. They bear fatigue with incredible patience, and will travel two days successively without any sort of nourishment. It is the custom, says Curtis, to destroy the aged and decrepid, when they become useless to the society, and burdensome to themselves. This practice they vindicate from their mode of life, alleging that those who are unable to procure necessaries should not live merely to consume them. Like the other American savages, they always enjoy, and even laugh at, the sight of distress or pain; and it is a favourite pastime of the women to kill a captive woman or child. Such is the humanity of savages!

CENTRAL PARTS.

Till the journey of Mr. Hearne, an officer of the Hudson's Bay Company, in 1771, and the more difficult and laborious enterprises of Mr. Mackenzie in 1788 and 1793, little was known concerning the interior parts of North America. In 1746 D'Anville lays down, with considerable accuracy, the Sea of Canada, or the three great conjunct lakes. He closes with the Lake of the Woods; and a river (now called Winnipeg) runs to the north, while from the same lake a large river proceeds to the west, 'discovered by a savage called Ochagac,' but which does not exist. Not far to the south of the Lake of the Woods he places the Mississippi, but says that the sources are unknown; they are now marked on that very spot. After a few other positions in that vicinity, he declares his ignorance of the country further to the west. Thus the great lakes of Winnipeg, of the Hills, and the Slave lake, with the immense ranges of mountains, and other important features, were unknown to this able geographer, who was master of all the knowledge of his time. The lake of Winnipeg appears to have been disclosed to European notice about 1760, by furriers from Canada; and much was said of an imaginary large river called the Bourbon; which may, however, have been the Saskatchewan.

Mr. Hearne performed his journeys in the years 1769—1772; but his book did not appear till 1795. He proceeded from fort Prince of

Wales, or Churchill, and explored a groupe of lakes, called Doobant and other names, near Chesterfield inlet; and, further to the west, a lake of great extent, which he calls Athapuscow, the centre being in long. 125 deg. lat 62 deg.; being evidently the Slave lake of Mr. Mackenzie, in the same latitude, but long. 115 deg.—The Copper Mine river, which Mr. Hearne lays down in long. 120 deg. is by Mr. Arrowsmith assigned to long. 113 deg. This river flowing into the Arctic ocean was the most curious discovery of Mr. Hearne, whose journals seemed sufficiently to demonstrate that no north-west passage was to be expected. In his preface he expresses his opinion that the Copper river probably flows into an inland sea like that of Hudson; which may also be the case with Mackenzie's river. Mr. Hearne's adventures on his new route are amusing and interesting. He met with many herds of musk cattle, a curious species described and engraved by Mr. Pennant in his Arctic Zoology. On the 14th of July, 1771, he at length arrived at the Copper river, where the savages who attended him murdered, in a shocking manner, some Eskimo families; and, on the 17th, he was within sight of the sea. 'I therefore set instantly about commencing my survey, and pursued it to the mouth of the river; which I found all the way so full of shoals and falls, that it was not navigable even for a boat, and that it emptied itself into the sea over a ridge or bar. The tide was then out; but I judged, from the marks which I saw on the edge of the ice, that it flowed about twelve or fourteen feet, which will only reach a little way within the river's mouth. The tide being out, the water in the river was perfectly fresh; but I am certain of its being the sea, or some branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and seal-skins which the Eskimos had at their tents, and also by the number of seals which I saw on the ice. At the mouth of the river the sea is full of islands and shoals, as far as I could see with the assistance of a good pocket telescope. The ice was not then broke up, but was melted away for about three quarters of a mile from the main shore, and to a little distance round the islands and shoals.' He found the Eskimos here of a dirty copper colour, and rather shorter in stature than those of the south. Even here the kettles are made of lapis ollaris, of a mixed brown and white; and their hatchets and knives are of copper. The dogs have sharp erect ears,

sharp noses, and bushy tails, being a fine breed of that sort. Many kinds of sea-fowl were observed; and in the ponds and marshes swans, geese, curlews, and plovers. The quadrupeds are musk cattle, rein deer, bears, wolves, wolvereens, foxes, alpine hares, squirrels, ermines, mice. Mr. Hearne afterwards visited one of the copper mines, about thirty miles south-east from the mouth of the river, being merely a hill which seems to have been rent by an earthquake, or perhaps by subterranean water. The copper is found in lumps, and is beaten out by the help of fire and two stones. Upon his return Mr. Hearne passed further to the west; and on the 24th of December, 1771, he arrived at the north side of the great lake of Athapuscow, where our traveller observed a rustling noise to proceed from the northern lights, and he confutes several popular tales concerning the beaver. The lake of Athapuscow is very full of islands, filled with tall trees like masts, as appears from his cursory view of a part of it.—The natives reported it to be 120 leagues in length, from east to west; and 20 wide. It is stored with quantities of fish, pike, trout, perch, barbel, and two sorts called by the natives titamag and methy. The northern shore consists of confused rocks and hills, but the southern is level and beautiful; and there are many wild cattle and moose deer, the former, particularly the bulls, being larger than the English black cattle. The hunch on the back is an elongation of the wither bones, according to Mr. Hearne. Proceeding southward he arrived at the great Athapuscow river, which he found about two miles in breadth, being evidently the Slave river of Mr. Mackenzie. Our traveller then passed eastward without any remarkable discovery, and arrived at fort Prince of Wales 30th June, 1772.

Mr. Mackenzie's journals were of yet more consequence. In June, 1789, he embarked in a canoe at fort Chepiwian, on the south of the Lake of the Hills, and proceeded along the Slave river to the Slave lake, whence he entered a river now called after his own name, till he reached the Arctic ocean. The Slave river he describes as very considerable, and says it receives its name from an Indian tribe, called slaves merely from their extreme ferocity. The Slave lake he found covered with ice in the month of June, and the chief fish were carp, white fish, trout, and pike. He justly remark-

ed it as spruce, fire, pro before name is not abo the 11t consider he seen veller's It appe estuary. Macken some w than th ever ne to be su the sea seem ta it wouk another Rocky ocean. petroleu coal on our aut occupie plete co northern and th that it Equ Macke the ter large r prising Octob ver, or reach Moun 817 ya some d on the into th River which to be to its able w afterw land; lat. 59 of the

ed it as extraordinary that land, covered with spruce, pine, and white birch, when wasted by fire, produces nothing but poplars, where none before appeared. The river called after his name is sometimes fifty fathoms in depth, though not above three hundred yards in breadth. On the 11th of July the sun remained all night considerably above the horizon; and soon after he seems to have reached the sea; but our traveller's account is here not a little perplexed. It appears, however, that his river has a wide estuary, with many islands, one of which Mr. Mackenzie called Whale Island, as he here saw some whales as large as his canoe, and larger than the largest porpoise. Such fish are, however never observed in lakes; and there seems to be sufficient indications that he had reached the sea. Though so far to the north, there seem to be other savages besides Iskimos; and it would appear from their report that there is another large river on the western side of the Rocky Mountains, which also joins the Arctic ocean. On his return Mr. Mackenzie observed petroleum, or rather maltha, and a large bed of coal on fire; and on the 12th September, 1789, our author finished his first voyage, which had occupied one hundred and two days. A complete confirmation thence arises that there is no northern communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific, except at so high a latitude that it must be impeded by perpetual ice.

Equally important and interesting was Mr. Mackenzie's second voyage, for, though inland, the term is proper, as both were conducted on large rivers, by means of canoes. Our enterprising traveller left fort Chepiwian on the 10th October, 1792, and proceeded up the Peace river, or Unjiga, in a south-west direction, till he reached a high land beyond the Stoney or Rocky Mountains, the height of which he computes at 817 yards. After transporting their canoe, with some difficulty, they embarked on a small river on the other side, which soon brought them into the river Oregon, Columbia, or the Great River of the West, the origin and course of which were before totally misunderstood. It is to be regretted that he did not pursue this river to its mouth: but after proceeding a considerable way, he returned against the stream, and afterwards travelled to the Pacific ocean by land; and reached one of the numerous inlets lat. 52 deg. 20 min. by Mr. Arrowsmith's map of the expedition. His adventures and diffi-

culties, on this new route, are striking and singular, and will amply reward the reader's curiosity. On the west of the Unjiga beautiful scenery was observed, interspersed with hill and lawn, with groves of poplars, and enlivened with vast herds of elks on the uplands, and of buffaloes on the plains. The last so much abound, that in some places the country resembles a stall-yard. That fierce species called the grizzly bear was also seen. The Unjiga is sometimes from 4 to 800 yards wide; and the cold was often extreme, rather from the height of the general level than that of the mountains, which does not exceed 1500 feet. Among the birds observed were blue jays, yellow birds, and beautiful humming birds. Beavers are common, and tracks of moose deer were remarked. Where they reached the Oregon, it was about 200 yards wide. Towards the Pacific the natives are fairer than in the other parts of North America; and one man was at least six feet four inches in height. Their eyes are not dark, like those of the other Indians, but grey, with a tinge of red. The men wear only a robe made of the bark of the cedar tree, rendered as fine as hemp, sometimes with borders of red and yellow threads; and the women add a short apron. Some of their canoes are forty-five feet in length, the gunwale being inlaid with the teeth of the sea otter, not with human teeth, as Captain Cook supposed. On the 20th of July, 1793, Mr. Mackenzie reached an arm of the sea where the tide was abated, and had left a large space covered with sea weed. In September, 1793, he returned to fort Chepiwian, after an absence of eleven months.

On the annexation of Louisiana to the United States, the government of that country naturally turned its attention to obtain an accurate knowledge of the new territory, as a necessary foundation of whatever improvement, political or commercial, it might be thought expedient to undertake. Of the expeditions hitherto directed to this object, the most important is that which was entrusted to the command of Captains Lewis and Clarke, with instructions, after exploring the Missouri, from its confluence with the Mississippi to its source, to proceed across the mountains to the first navigable river on the western side which they should be able to follow down to the ocean. This voyage began in May, 1804, and was terminated by the return to the place of embarkation in September, 1806;

the distance travelled over, being, in all, about 9000 miles.

In order to form a general notion of the portion of the American continent traversed in this expedition, we must conceive, that from the junction of the rivers just named, a great tract of land, comparatively low, extends from about the 38th degree of north latitude, in some places as far as the 50th, and from long. 90 deg. to between 107 and 112 deg. west; and that nearly the whole of this is drained by the great system of rivers of which the Missouri is the main trunk. This tract, though without any high mountains, and having generally the appearance of an alluvial country, ascends with a considerable acclivity to the west, where it becomes the base from which rises the chain of the Rocky or Stoney Mountains, dividing the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Pacific Ocean, and being a part of the enormous bulwark which overlooks the latter, from the Straits of Magellan almost to the polar circle. This chain, reckoning right across, from the defile through which the waters of the Missouri descend toward the east, to the plains which extend westward to the Pacific, is of the breadth of 240 miles. The breadth of the plains is not less than 500.

The account of the expedition is given in the form of a journal, very minute, circumstantial, and unadorned, with every mark of being entitled to perfect confidence. It is, however, often heavy and uninteresting, though it contains also much curious and valuable information concerning a tract of the earth that possesses many singularities.

A vast number of large rivers join the Missouri from the south and west. One of the greatest of those is the Platta, or Platte, which, rising in the great chain of the Rocky Mountains about long. 112 deg. runs nearly due east to long. 97 deg. where it joins the Missouri.—The Platta is 600 yards wide at the junction; but its depth appears not to exceed six feet. Its sources are on the Spanish frontier, and not far distant from those of the Rio del Norte, which traverses the kingdom of New Mexico, and runs into the gulf of Florida. From its rapidity, and the quantity of sand it carries down, it is not navigable to boats, though the Indians pass it in small canoes made of hides.

The vast quantity of sand carried down by the Missouri, and all the rivers that run into it,

is a phenomenon of which we believe there is no example on this side of the Atlantic. Such rivers are instruments of the degradation of the land, far more active than any that occur in the regions not subject to great periodical inundations. They are not, however, subject to such inundations; and therefore the quantity of sand they transport, with the constant changes taking place in their beds, must be ascribed to the loose texture of the grounds through which they flow. The great sinuosity of the Missouri, is a fact that must be explained in the same manner.—One day, when they stopped to take their meridian observation, they found themselves so near the spot where they had observed the day before, that they sent a man to step the distance over the narrow neck of land which separated the two stations: he stepped 974 yards, and the distance by the river was 18 miles and three quarters. At a place called the Great Bend, or Grand Detour, the winding of the river was still more remarkable: the distance across the neck was 2000 yards, while the circuit by the river was no less than 30 miles.

The velocity of the stream is mentioned at one place, as having been measured by the log, and found a fathom and a quarter, or $7\frac{1}{4}$ feet per second: it is added, that in some places they had found the velocity double of this. A velocity of $7\frac{1}{4}$ feet per second is nearly 5 miles an hour, which is very far beyond the velocity of the streams with which we are acquainted in this part of the world. In a river, not very deep, obstructed by shoals, and rolling a prodigious quantity of sand along its bottom, such a velocity as even the least of the two just mentioned, argues a very great declivity.

Accordingly the climate far below its source is very various; and the extreme cold experienced during the winter, in a latitude no higher than 47 deg. cannot be explained on any supposition but that of an extraordinary elevation. The thermometer, at the place of their encampment, was frequently 20 deg. below 0, or 52 deg. below the freezing point. As an additional proof that the ground here is very high, it may be observed, that some rivers which run northward to Lake Winnipeg, and from thence into Hudson's Bay, take their rise at no great distance from the northern bank of the Missouri.

After passing the winter months in the small fort which they had erected on the north bank of the river, they resumed their voyage on the

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7th of April. The course of the river from this point lies considerably more to the west: from about the great bend, already mentioned, to where they now were, their course had been nearly north. After this, it was mostly west; inclining at first towards the north; afterwards west, with a little south, for a great length.—The river preserves the same character, decreasing slowly in magnitude, and still flowing through an alluvial country; where there is no very high ground, and where the plains are traversed by the elk, the buffalo, the antelope, &c.

As they held on their course, they found the same appearances of salt and coal; also of pumice-stone and a kind of burnt earth. A little farther on, the hills exhibited large, irregular, broken masses of rocks, some of which, although 200 feet above the river, seemed, at some remote period, to have been subject to its influence, and were apparently worn smooth by the agitation of the water. The rocks, as here enumerated, consist of white and grey granite, flint, limestone, freestone, and occasionally broken strata of a black coloured stone like petrified wood, which make good whetstones.—The usual appearances of coal and pumice-stone continued, the coal being of a better quality when burned, making a hot and lasting fire, but emitting very little smoke or flame. At a point a little higher up than this, the bed of coal is said to be in some places six feet thick. It seems a remarkable fact in the history of this country, that even on the side of so large a river, dew is extremely rare.

They were now approaching to the Rocky Mountains,—those which form the partition between the waters of the east and of the west; and some of the points of this remarkable chain were occasionally in view. The elevation at which they were, was certainly now very considerable. There was no timber on the hills; and only a few scattered trees of cotton-wood, ash, box, alder, and willow, by the water side. The scenery was very romantic; and in the midst of it, says the narrative, are vast ranges of walls, which are so singular, that they seem the productions of art. They rise perpendicularly from the river, sometimes to the height of 100 feet, varying in thickness from one foot to 12, but equally broad at top and bottom. The stones of which they are formed are black, thick, and durable, and are almost invariably parallelopipeds of unequal sizes, but equally

deep, and laid regularly in ranges over each other like bricks, each covering the interstice of the two on which it rests.

Such a wall, 100 feet high, and 12 feet broad, must be a very magnificent object, and seems in due proportion to the great scale on which every thing in this country is laid down. The top of this wall must have once been level with the surface; so we may judge from this of the quantity of strata worn away. It is a satisfaction to see the same characters prevailing in the geological structure of countries most remote from one another, and to observe basaltic walls intersecting the strata of the Missouri, just as they cut the Waken of the island of Mull, or the columnar rocks of the Giant's Causeway.

As they approached the mountains, and had got considerably beyond the walls just described, at the meridian nearly of 110 deg. and the parallel of about 47 deg. 20 min. there was a bifurcation of the river, which threw them into considerable doubt as to which was the true Missouri, and the course which it behoved them to pursue. The commanders of the expedition determined to follow the southern branch.—They proceeded till the 13th, when finding that the river bore considerably to the south, fearing that they were in an error, they changed their course, and proceeded across the plain.—In this direction Captain Lewis had gone about two miles, when his ears were saluted with the agreeable sound of a fall of water; and, as he advanced, a spray, which seemed driven by the high south-west wind, rose above the plain like a column of smoke, and vanished in an instant. Towards this point he directed his steps; and the noise increasing as he approached, soon became too tremendous to be mistaken for any thing but the great falls of the Missouri. Having travelled seven miles after first hearing the sound, he reached the falls about 12 o'clock. The hills, as he approached, were difficult of access, and about 200 feet high. Down these he hurried with impatience; and seating himself on some rocks under the centre of the falls, enjoyed the sublime spectacle of this stupendous cataract, which since the creation had been lavishing its magnificence on the desert.

These falls extend, in all, over a distance of nearly twelve miles; and the medium breadth of the river varies from 300 to 600 yards. The principal fall is near the lower extremity, and is upwards of 80 feet perpendicular. The river

is here 300 yards wide, with perpendicular cliffs on each side, not less than 100 feet high. For 90 or 100 yards from the left cliff, the water falls in one smooth, even sheet, over a precipice at least 80 feet high. The remaining part of the river precipitates itself also with great rapidity; but being received as it falls by irregular and projecting rocks, forms a splendid prospect of white foam, 200 yards in length, and 80 in perpendicular elevation. The spray is dissipated in a thousand shapes, flying up in high columns, and collecting into large masses, which the sun adorns with all the colouring of the rainbow. The fall, just described, must be one of the most magnificent and picturesque that is any where to be found. It has often been disputed, whether a cataract, in which the water falls in one sheet, or where it is dashed irregularly among the rocks, is the finest object. It was reserved for the Missouri to resolve this doubt, by exhibiting both at once in the greatest magnificence.

From the falls the direction of their course was almost due south, inclining a little to the east. About 60 geographical miles from the falls, the river emerges from the first ridge of the Rocky Mountains, or, as our travellers call them, the Gates of those mountains. This pass is in lat. 46 deg. 46 min. 50 sec. The rocks are said to be a black granite, that is, of green-stone or basalt. These rocks approached the river on both sides, so as to form a most sublime and extraordinary spectacle, as for more than five miles they rise perpendicularly from the water's edge nearly to the height of 1200 feet. Nothing can be more tremendous than the frowning darkness of these rocks, which project over the river, and seem to threaten you with destruction. Above the gates the perpendicular rocks cease, the hills retire from the river, and the valleys suddenly widen to a considerable extent; and here there can be little doubt that we have the remains of a second lake.

The three branches just mentioned, were called by our travellers after three of the most distinguished of the American statesmen. That on the south-west, which was the most considerable, they called the Jefferson; the middle branch, the Maddison; and the easternmost, the Gallatin. The forks are in lat. 45 deg. 24 min. 8 sec. After making observations for the longitude, with which, however, they have not favoured us, they determined to ascend the

Jefferson, as that which was most likely to suit their purpose, of reaching, by the nearest route across the mountains, some of the smaller branches which join the Columbia, and discharge their waters into the Pacific Ocean.

The party advanced along the Jefferson, and have marked the length of their voyage by the name they gave to a small island, *3000-Mile Island*; such being its distance from the mouth of the Missouri, reckoning by the course of the river. They were still upon the banks of a stream, which they knew to be the continuation of the Jefferson, or the Missouri, which was now reduced to a breadth that one could step over. 'One of the men,' says Captain Lewis, 'in a fit of enthusiasm, setting one foot on each side of the stream, thanked God, that he had lived to bestride the Missouri;—a very natural expression of the sentiment, which must be uppermost in the mind of a man who, for a distance of 3000 miles, had been struggling against the force of the powerful and impetuous river, which was now so completely subdued. From the foot of a neighbouring mountain issues the remotest water of the Missouri.'

Captain Lewis having fallen in with a troop of nearly 60 mounted warriors, he endeavoured to persuade them to accompany him towards the sources of the Missouri, where he expected to meet his companions from whom he had separated. The chief, and a number of the rest, agreed to go with him, when an accident happened, very characteristic of the condition of the savage life. Captain Lewis had sent some of his hunters in quest of game, considerably a-head of the party, as both the Indians and his own people were very much in want of food. As he was proceeding with the Indians along the plain on horseback, an Indian, who had been dispatched by the chief at the same time that the hunters had been sent out by Captain Lewis, probably with the view of watching the former, was seen riding towards them at full speed. On coming up, he spoke a few words, when the troop dashed forward as fast as their horses could carry them. Captain Lewis, astonished at this movement, was borne along for nearly a mile before he learned that all this hurry was occasioned by the spy having announced, that one of the white men had killed a deer. This was the joyful intelligence that had occasioned all this confusion; and when they reached the place where the inter-

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tines had been thrown out, the Indians dismounted in the greatest haste, and ran tumbling over each other like famished dogs. Each tore away whatever part he could, and began instantly to devour it: some had the liver, some the kidneys, and even the parts which we are accustomed to look on with disgust. It was indeed impossible to see these wretched men, ravenously feeding on the filth of animals, and the blood streaming from their mouths, without deploring how nearly the condition of the savage approaches to that of the brute. Yet there is even here a mark of humanity which one is glad to recognize; the more prominent, indeed, for being surrounded by so many circumstances of wretchedness. Though suffering with hunger, Captain Lewis remarks, they did not attempt, as they might have done, to take the whole deer, or any part of it, by force; but contented themselves with what had been thrown away. A sentiment of justice therefore guided the conduct of these savages, even when they seemed the most to assume the character of the wild beast. When the deer was skinned, and after reserving a quarter of it for his own people, he gave the rest to the chief to be divided among the Indians, who immediately devoured it quite raw.

Next day Captain Lewis, with the Indians, met his friends ascending the river in their canoes. A Mandan woman, who followed the party, the wife of Chaboneau, their interpreter, discovered great joy on seeing these Indians, whom she knew to be of her native tribe; and this, as soon as she perceived them, she indicated by sucking her fingers. As they approached one another, a woman from among the Indians made her way through the crowd towards Sacajewah, when, recognizing each other, they embraced with the most tender affection. The meeting of these two women had in it something peculiarly touching, not only in the ardent manner in which their feelings were expressed, but from real interest in their situation. They had been companions in childhood; and in the war of their tribe with the Minnetarees, they had both been taken prisoners in the same battle. They had shared and softened the rigours of captivity, till one of them had escaped with scarce a hope of ever seeing her friend relieved from the hands of her enemies. This interesting scene was hardly over, when the two parties having met, and be-

ing disposed to enter into friendly intercourse with one another, Sacajewah was sent for into the tent of the chief to act as their interpreter, when instantly, in the person of the chief himself, she recognized her brother. She immediately jumped up, ran and embraced him, throwing her blanket over him, and weeping profusely; the chief himself was moved, though not in the same degree. These are incidents more romantic and sentimental than one would expect to meet with in a camp of savages; and we see with pleasure, that in no situation is man abandoned by some of the best feelings of his nature. It is, indeed, pleasing to follow the whole transactions between the American travellers, and this gentle and innocent tribe of Indians. The latter testified their extreme surprise with every thing they saw:—the appearance of the men,—their arms,—their clothing,—the canoes,—the strange look of the negro,—the sagacity of the dog,—all excited their admiration: but what raised their astonishment the most was, a shot from the air-gun. This was instantly considered as a *great medicine*, by which the Indians usually mean something emanating directly from the Great Spirit, or produced by his invisible and incomprehensible agency. Captain Lewis distributed among them a great number of presents, particularly to the chiefs, from which they appeared to receive great satisfaction.

They had now reached the extreme navigable point of the Missouri, the latitude of which they determined by observation to be 43 deg. 30 min. 2 sec. and its longitude, as given in the map, about 112 deg. west from London. Their road, in which they were directed by the Indians, lay from this across the mountains, nearly in the direction of north-west. Their journey through the mountains, even with all the assistance they could procure, was extremely difficult. They were provided with horses, which they purchased with trinkets, and such articles as attracted the notice of the Indians; but the steep and stony mountains, and the difficulty of provisions in a country where very little game was to be found, rendered their march tedious and difficult. The rivers afforded fish, though not always in great abundance; and here, in the rivers that run towards the west, they found salmon, of which none are to be met with in the Missouri and its branches. The cold was also another source of difficulty, as the height

to which they had now ascended was certainly very great. They had ascended a river of a very rapid current for more than 3000 miles; and the height of the spot where they left their canoes, cannot certainly be estimated at less than 6000 feet. They had now risen considerably above this 'eight; and, accordingly, it is said, that on the 21st of August the weather was so cold that the water which stood in vessels exposed to the air, was frozen to the depth of a quarter of an inch in the vessels: the ink froze in the pen, and the low grounds were white with hoar frost, though the day afterwards proved extremely warm.

When they embarked in their canoes on the Kooskooskee, they had a succession of the most dangerous rapids to encounter. The Indians used to run along the tops of the rocks that overhang the river, curious to witness the efforts of the white men, who had courage and skill enough to extricate themselves from dangers that followed in such quick succession.

The waters of the Kooskooskee are clear as crystal; and, where that river joins Lewis River, a large branch of the Columbia, which rises in the same chain of mountains, it is 150 yards wide. Where Lewis River joins the Columbia, it is 575 yards wide, the Columbia itself 960; though soon after the junction, it expands to the width of from one to three miles. From the point of junction, the country is a continued plain, with no trees, and nothing but a few willow bushes. The latitude is in 46 deg. 13 min. 13 sec. The rapids still continued; and there were even falls, of considerable pitch, over which this vast body of waters was poured, and where the canoes, of course, must be carried over dry land. A most singular rapid succeeds, when the whole of the Columbia is forced through a narrow channel no more than 45 yards wide. They ventured, nevertheless, in their canoes, down this tremendous rapid, and escaped in safety. The river after this becomes smooth; they describe the valley through which it runs as a fertile and delightful country, shaded by thick groves of tall timber, watered by small ponds, on both sides of the river; the soil rich, and capable of any species of culture. While sailing down this part of the river, they saw a high mountain on their right, the top covered with snow, which they had seen before as they were descending the Rocky Mountains, at the distance of 160 miles, and were now satisfied

that it was the St. Helens of Vancouver; it is about 100 miles east from the mouth of the Columbia, and is, no doubt, of great height.

On the 7th of November, they first got sight of the ocean, the object of all their labours, and which they now felt as the reward of all their anxieties. The view raised their spirits; and they were by and by farther cheered by the roar of the distant breakers. The spot which they selected for their winter quarters, and where they established their camp, was in full view of the sea, about seven miles distant, in lat. 46 deg. 19 min. and on the south bank of the river.— They found that this place is much frequented by ships, both British and American, who come, during the summer, to buy furs of the natives. They found the natives, of consequence, not strangers to white men, and in possession of many little articles of show, and particularly of blue beads, which they prefer to every other thing, and use as money or the common medium of exchange in their dealings with one another. They are perfectly initiated, too, in the art and cunning inseparable from traffic in its first stage, and in its lowest branches. In general, however, all the tribes on this side the mountains are of a more mild and gentle character than those on the eastern side. Is this at all connected with their living less on flesh than the latter, and more on fish and vegetables? In many other respects they are very different from one another: some very honest, others of a thievish disposition; some tall and handsome, and others ill-shaped and dwarfish. Their languages are also very different, so that the neighbouring tribes could not always converse with one another. On this account, the intercourse between the American party and the natives was often carried on with great difficulty.

It seems not unlikely that a few years will place an American colony somewhere about the mouth of the Columbia; for the States are no less ambitious of extending their territory than the country from which they sprang, although they have already more than they are able to occupy.

The return of the party across the mountains, and southward to Fort Louis on the Mississippi, was attended with many difficulties, but affords no circumstance of peculiar importance.

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issippi, to explore the source of that river, and also those of the Osage, Arkansaw, and La Plate rivers. Having, however, crossed the Spanish boundaries, he was taken prisoner, and carried before the general of the forces in the north-eastern provinces of New Spain, by whom he was sent back under a military escort. The journal of this officer contains much entertaining information respecting the Indian tribes bordering the Upper Mississippi. But the enterprising directors of the North-west Company have lately ordered a Mr. Mackenzie to proceed down Mackenzie's river, and explore the North Sea; and also sent a Mr. McKay to cross the Rocky Mountains, and proceed to the Western Ocean. A Mr. Thompson has likewise been employed for some years by this company, in making a geographical survey of the north-west part of the continent; a task which he entered upon with an astonishing spirit of enterprise. When the discoveries of these gentlemen are published, the geography of these vast regions will be tolerably correct and precise.

WESTERN COAST.

The Russians may be regarded as the first discoverers of the north-western shores of America. To the isles between Asia and this continent they assign different names, as Andrenovian, &c. but in their own most recent maps one general appellation is substituted, that of the Aleutian Isles. The furthest Aleutian Isles, which form a chain from the American promontory of Alaska, are also called the Fox Isles; while the nearest Aleutian Isles of the Russians are those which we term Beering's and Copper Isles. But in the best English maps the name of Aleutian is restricted to the former; and it is to English navigators that we are indebted for the precise geography of these regions, which have been strangely embroiled by the erroneous astronomical observations of the Russian captains. Our excellent Cook, in particular, greatly extended our knowledge; and he was followed by Meares, Dixon, Van-

couver, La Perouse, and other able navigators; and recently by Mackenzie, who has the singular merit of having first visited the Pacific by an inland progress from the east.

This coast, as already mentioned, seems to be chiefly alpine; in which respect, and in its numerous creeks and isles, it bears no small resemblance to Norway. The most remarkable mountain seems to be that called St. Elias by the Russian navigators; and which, it is affirmed has been visible at sea at no less a distance than about sixty leagues. At *Port des Francois*, lat. 58 deg. 37 min. La Perouse observes that the primitive mountains of granite or slate rise from the sea, yet the summits are covered with perpetual snow, and immense glaciers wind through the cavities. The natives he has minutely described; and says that he has always found savages 'barbarous, deceitful, and wicked.' This has been the uniform tenet of experience; but it is only in recent times that profound ignorance has aspired to the name of philosophy. Their most singular practice is the slitting and distending of the under lip, so as to beautify the females with two mouths.—The lofty mountains, which La Perouse computes at more than 10,000 feet in height, terminate at Cross Sound; but the alpine ridges continue, though of smaller elevation, and probably extend with a few interruptions as far as California. Mr. Mackenzie in lat 53 deg. and Vancouver in a more southern latitude, found the same mountainous appearances. What is called the coast of New Albion has been faintly explored; and the Spanish power is always an obstruction to science. The inhabitants of the more northern regions of this coast appear to be Eskimos. In the part through which Mr. Mackenzie passed, he found some of the tribes of a low stature, with round faces, high cheek bones, black eyes and hair; the complexion of a swarthy yellow. Nearer the Pacific the people, as already mentioned, had grey eyes tinged with red; and their manners are minutely illustrated in his narrative.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ABORIGINES OF AMERICA.

THE aborigines of America, throughout the whole extent of the two vast continents which they inhabit, and amongst the infinite number of nations and tribes into which they are divided, differ very little from each other in their manners and customs; and they all form a very striking picture of the most distant antiquity. By taking a general view of the whole, the peculiarities that distinguish the most important tribes will be more easily perceived and understood.

The people of America are tall, and strait in their limbs beyond the proportion of most nations: their bodies are strong; but of a species of strength rather fitted to endure much hardship, than to continue long at any servile work, by which they are quickly consumed; it is the strength of a beast of prey, rather than that of a beast of burthen. Their bodies and heads are flattish, the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin a reddish brown, admired amongst them, and improved by the constant use of bear's fat and paint.

When the Europeans first came into America, they found the people quite naked, except those parts which it is common for the most uncultivated people to conceal. Since that time they have generally a coarse blanket to cover them, which they buy from us. The whole fashion of their lives is of a piece; hardy, poor, and squalid; and their education from their infancy is solely directed to fit their bodies for this mode of life, and to form their minds to inflict and to endure the greatest evils.

Their only occupations are hunting and war. Agriculture is left to the women. Merchandise they contemn. When their hunting season is past, which they go through with much patience, and in which they exert great ingenuity, they pass the rest of their time in an entire indolence. They sleep half the day in their huts, they loiter and jest among their friends, and they observe no bounds or decency in their eat-

ing and drinking. Before we discovered them, they had no spirituous liquors; but now, the acquirement of these is what gives a spur to their industry, and enjoyment to their repose. This is the principal end they pursue in their treaties; and from this they suffer inexpressible calamities; for, having once begun to drink, they can preserve no measures, but continue a succession of drunkenness as long as their means of procuring liquor lasts. In this condition they lie exposed on the earth to all the inclemency of the seasons, which wastes them by a train of the most fatal disorders; they perish in rivers and marshes; they tumble into the fire; they quarrel, and very frequently murder each other; and, in short, excess in drinking, which with us is rather immoral than destructive, amongst this uncivilized people, who have not art enough to guard against the consequence of their vices, is a public calamity. The few amongst them, who live free from this evil, enjoy the reward of their temperance in a robust and healthy old age.

The character of the Indians is striking.—They are grave even to sadness in their deportment upon any serious occasion; observant of those in company; respectful to the old; of a temper cool and deliberate; by which they are never in haste to speak before they have thought well upon the matter, and are sure the person who spoke before them has finished all he had to say. They have therefore the greatest contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who interrupt each other, and frequently speak all together. Nothing is more edifying than their behaviour in their public councils and assemblies. Every man there is heard in his turn, according as his years, his wisdom, or his services to his country, have ranked him. Not a word, not a whisper, not a murmur, is heard from the rest while he speaks. No indecent condemnation, no ill-timed applause. The younger sort attend for their instruction. Here they learn the history of their nation; here they are inflamed with the songs of those who celebrate the warlike actions of their ancestors;

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and here they are taught what are the interests of their country, and how to pursue them.

There is no people amongst whom the laws of hospitality are more sacred, or executed with more generosity and good-will. Their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. To those of their own nation they are likewise very humane and beneficent. But to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment: no distance of place great enough to protect the object: he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles, bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed in general is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

Notwithstanding this ferocity, no people have their anger, or at least the shew of their anger, more under their command. From their infancy they are formed with care to endure scoffs, taunts, blows, and every sort of insult patiently, or at least with a composed countenance. This is one of the principal objects of their education. They esteem nothing so unworthy a man of sense and constancy, as a peevish temper, and a proneness to sudden and rash anger. And this so far has an effect, that quarrels happen as rarely amongst them when they are not intoxicated with liquor, as does the chief cause of all quarrels, hot and abusive language. But human nature is such, that, as virtues may with proper management be engrafted upon almost all sorts of vicious passions, so vices naturally grow out of the best dispositions, and are the consequence of those regulations that produce and strengthen them. This is the reason that, when the passions of the Americans are roused, being shut up, as it were, and converging into a narrow point, they become more furious; they are dark, sullen, treacherous, and unappeasable.

A people who live by hunting, who inhabit mean cottages, and are given to change the place of their habitation, are seldom very religious. Some appear to have very little idea of God. Others entertain better notions; they hold the existence of the Supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all. Satisfied with owning this, which is traditional amongst them, they give him no sort of worship. There are indeed nations in America, who seem to pay some religious homage to the sun and moon; and, as most of them have a notion of some invisible beings, who continually intermeddle in their affairs, they discourse much of demons, nymphs, fairies, or beings equivalent. Though without religion, they abound in superstitions; as it is common for those to do, whose subsistence depends, like theirs, upon fortune. Great observers of omens and dreams, and pry-ers into futurity with great eagerness, they abound in diviners, augurs, and magicians, whom they rely much upon in all affairs that concern them, whether of health, war, or hunting. Their physic, which may be rather called magic, is entirely in the hands of the priests.

The loss of any one of their people, whether by a natural death, or by war, is lamented by the whole town he belongs to. In such circumstances no business is taken in hand, however important, nor any rejoicing permitted, however interesting the occasion, until all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. These are always discharged with the greatest solemnity. The dead body is washed, anointed, and painted, so as in some measure to abate the horrors of death. Then the women lament the loss with the most bitter cries, and the most hideous howlings, intermixed with songs, which celebrate the great actions of the deceased, and those of his ancestors. The men mourn in a less extravagant manner. The whole village attends the body to the grave, where it is interred, habited in their most sumptuous ornaments. With the body of the deceased are placed his bow and arrows, with what he valued most in his life, and provisions for the long journey he is to take: for they hold the immortality of the soul universally, but their idea is gross. Feasting attends this, as it does every solemnity. After the funeral, they who are nearly allied to the deceased conceal themselves in their huts for a considerable time, to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolence



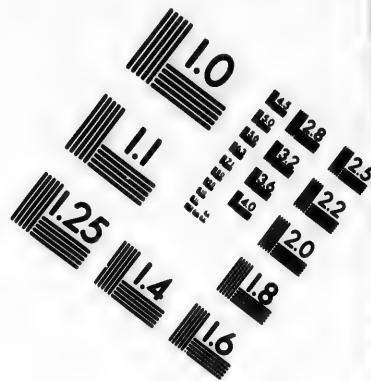
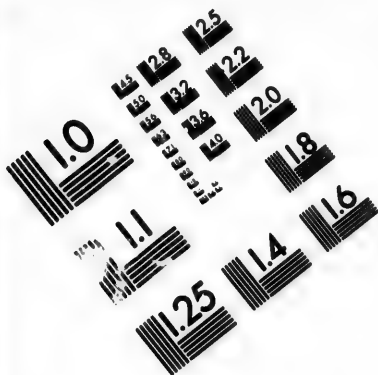
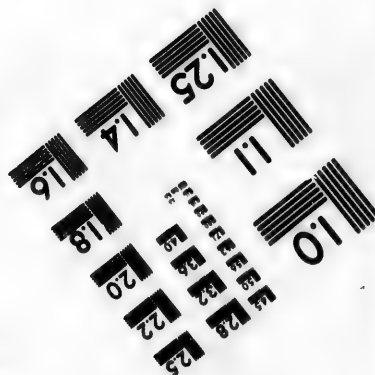
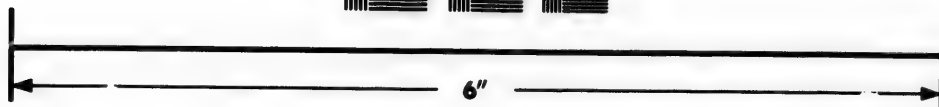
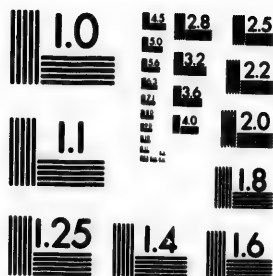


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are never omitted, nor are presents wanting upon this occasion. After some time, they revisit the grave; they renew their sorrow; they new clothe the remains of the body, and act over again the solemnities of the first funeral.

Of all their instances of regard to their deceased friends, none is so striking as what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation are exhausted on this occasion, and all their ingenuity displayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feast, and to be witnesses of the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn feast of that kind are taken out of their graves. Those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases. It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. 'Without question,' says Lafitau, 'the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoaked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgusting as they are, with every thing loathsome; cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged by their insupportable stench, and without suffering any other emotions to arise, than

those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.'

This strange festival is the most magnificent and solemn which they have; not only on account of the great concourse of natives and strangers, and of the pompous reinterment they give to their dead, whom they dress in the finest skins they can get, after having exposed them some time in this pomp; but for the games of all kinds which they celebrate upon the occasion, in the spirit of those which the ancient Greeks and Romans celebrated upon similar occasions.

In this manner do they endeavour to sooth the calamities of life, by the honours they pay their dead; honours, which are the more cheerfully bestowed, because in his turn each man expects to receive them himself. Though amongst these savage nations this custom is impressed with strong marks of the ferocity of their nature; an honour for the dead, a tender feeling of their absence, and a revival of their memory, are some of the most excellent instruments for smoothing our rugged nature into humanity. In civilized nations ceremonies are less practised, because other instruments for the same purposes are less wanted; but it is certain a regard for the dead is ancient and universal.

Though the women in America have generally the laborious part of the economy upon themselves, yet they are far from being the slaves they appear, and are not at all subject to the great subordination in which they are placed in countries where they seem to be more respected. On the contrary, all the honours of the nation are on the side of the women. They even hold their councils, and have their share in all deliberations which concern the state; nor are they found inferior in the part they act.—Polygamy is practised by some nations, but it is not general. In most they content themselves with one wife; but a divorce is admitted, and for the same causes that it was allowed amongst the Jews, Greeks, and Romans. No nation of the Americans is without a regular marriage, in which there are many ceremonies; the principal of which is, the bride's presenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn.

Incontinent before wedlock, after marriage the chastity of their women is remarkable.—The punishment of the adulteress, as well as that of the adulterer, is in the hands of the

husband himself; and it is often severe, as inflicted by one who is at once the party and the judge. Their marriages are not fruitful, seldom producing above two or three children, but they are brought forth with less pain than our women suffer upon such occasions, and with little consequent weakness. Probably, that severe life, which both sexes lead, is not favourable to procreation. And the habit unmarried women have of procuring abortions, in which they rarely fail, makes them more unfit for bearing children afterwards. This is one of the reasons of the depopulation of America; for whatever losses they suffer, either by epidemic diseases or by war, are repaired slowly.

Almost the sole occupation of the American is war, or such an exercise as qualifies him for it. His whole glory consists in this; and no man is at all considered until he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his house with a scalp of one of its enemies. When the ancients resolve upon war, they do not always declare what nation it is they are determined to attack; that the enemy, upon whom they really intend to fall, may be off his guard. Nay, they even sometimes let years pass over without committing any act of hostility, that the vigilance of all may be unbent by the long continuance of the watch, and the uncertainty of the danger. In the mean time they are not idle at home. The principal captain summons the youth of the town to which he belongs; the war kettle is set on the fire; the war songs and dances commence; the hatchet is sent to all the villages of the same nation, and to all its allies; the fire catches; the war songs are heard in all parts; and the most hideous howlings continue without intermission day and night over that whole tract of country. The women add their cries to those of the men, lamenting those whom they have either lost in war or by a natural death, and demanding their places to be supplied from their enemies; stimulating the young men by a sense of shame, which women know how to excite in the strongest manner, and can take the best advantage of when excited.

When by these, and every other means, the fury of the nation is raised to the greatest height, and all long to embue their hands in blood, the war captain prepares the feast, which consists of dogs' flesh. All that partake of this feast receive little billets, which are so many

engagements which they take to be faithful to each other, and obedient to their commander. None are forced to the war; but when they have accepted this billet, they are looked upon as listed, and it is then death to recede. All the warriors in this assembly have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with dashes and streaks of vermillion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Their hair is dressed up in an odd manner, with feathers of various kinds. In this assembly, which is preparatory to their military expedition, the chief begins the war song; which having continued for some time, he raises his voice to the highest pitch, and, turning off suddenly to a sort of prayer, addresses himself to the god of war, whom they call Areskoni: 'I invoke thee,' says he, 'to be favourable to my enterprise! I invoke thy care upon me and my family! I invoke ye likewise, all ye spirits and demons good and evil! All ye that are in the skies, or on the earth, or under the earth, to pour destruction upon our enemies, and to return me and my companions safely to our country.' All the warriors join him in this prayer with shouts and acclamations. The captain renews his song, strikes his club against the stakes of his cottage, and begins the war dance, accompanied with the shouts of all his companions, which continue as long as he dances.

The day appointed for their departure being arrived, they take leave of their friends; they change their clothes, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendship; their wives and female relations go out before them, and attend at some distance from the town.—The warriors march out all drest in their finest apparel and most shewy ornaments, regularly one after another, for they never march in rank. The chief walks slowly on before them, singing the death song, while the rest observe the most profound silence. When they come up to their women, they deliver up to them all their finery, put on their worst clothes, and then proceed as their commander thinks fit.

Their motives for engaging in a war are rarely those views which excite us to it. They have no other end but the glory of the victory, or the benefit of the slaves which it enables them to add to their nation, or sacrifice to their brutal fury; and it is rare that they take any pains to give their wars even a colour of justice. It is no way uncommon among them for the young

men to make feasts of dogs' flesh, and dances, in small parties, in the midst of the most profound peace. They fall sometimes on one nation, and sometimes on another, and surprise some of their hunters, whom they scalp and bring home as prisoners. Their senators wink at this, or rather encourage it, as it tends to keep up the martial spirit of their people, inures them to watchfulness and hardship, and gives them an early taste for blood.

The qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention; to give and to avoid a surprise; and patience and strength, to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardships which always attend it. The nations of America are at an immense distance from each other, with a vast desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of hideous, and almost boundless forests. These must be traversed before they meet an enemy, who is often at such a distance as might be supposed to prevent either quarrel or danger. But, notwithstanding the secrecy of the destination of the party that first moves, the enemy has frequent notice of it, is prepared for the attack, and ready to take advantage in the same manner of the least want of vigilance in the aggressors. Their whole art of war consists in this: they never fight in the open field, but upon some very extraordinary occasions; not from cowardice, for they are brave; but they despise this method, as unworthy an able warrior, and as an affair in which fortune governs more than prudence. The principal things which help them to find out their enemies, are the smoke of their fires, which they smell at a distance almost incredible; and their tracks, in the discovery and distinguishing of which, they are possessed of a sagacity equally astonishing; for they will tell in the footsteps, which to us would seem most confused, the number of men that have passed, and the length of time since they have passed; they even go so far as to distinguish the several nations by the different marks of their feet, and to perceive footsteps, where we could distinguish nothing less. A mind diligently intent upon one thing, and exercised by long experience, will go lengths at first view scarcely credible.

But as they who are attacked have the same knowledge, and know how to draw the same advantages from it, their great address is to baffle each other in these points. On the expedition they light no fire to warm themselves,

or prepare their victuals, but subsist merely on the miserable pittance of some of their meal mixed with water; they lie close on the ground all day, and march only in the night. As they march in their usual order in files, he who closes the rear diligently covers his own tracks, and those of all who preceded him, with leaves. If any stream occurs in their route, they march in it for a considerable way to foil their pursuers. When they halt to rest and refresh themselves, scouts are sent out on every side to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie perdu. In this manner they often enter a village whilst the strength of the nation is employed in hunting, and massacre all the helpless old men, women, and children, or make prisoners as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation.

They often cut off small parties of men in their huntings; but when they discover an army of their enemies, their way is to throw themselves flat on their faces amongst the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted to resemble exactly. They generally let a part pass unmolested; and then, rising a little, they take aim, for they are excellent marksmen, and setting up a most tremendous shout, which they call the war-cry, they pour a storm of musket-bullets upon the enemy; for they have long since laid aside the use of arrows: the party attacked returns the same cry. Every man in haste covers himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give the second fire.

After fighting some time in this manner, the party which thinks it has the advantage rushes out of its cover, with small axes in their hands, which they dart with great address and dexterity; they redouble their cries, intimidating their enemies with menaces, and encouraging each other with a boastful display of their own brave actions. Thus being come hand to hand, the contest is soon decided; and the conquerors satiate their savage fury with the most shocking insults and barbarities to the dead, biting their flesh, tearing the scalp from their heads, and wallowing in their blood like wild beasts.

The fate of their prisoners is the most severe of all. During the greatest part of their journey homewards they suffer no injury, but when they arrive at the territories of the conquering

state, or at those of their allies, the people from every village meet them, and think they shew their attachment to their friends by their barbarous treatment of the unhappy prisoners; so that, when they come to their station, they are wounded and bruised in a terrible manner.—The conquerors enter the town in triumph. The war captain waits upon the head men, and in a low voice gives them a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition, of the damage the enemy has suffered, and his own losses in it. This done, the public orator relates the whole to the people. Before they yield to the joy which the victory occasions, they lament the friends which they have lost in the pursuit of it. The parties most nearly concerned are afflicted apparently with a deep and real sorrow. But by one of those strange turns of the human mind, fashioned to any thing by custom, as if they were disciplined in their grief, upon the signal for rejoicing, in a moment all tears are wiped from their eyes, and they rush into an extravagance and frenzy of joy for their victory.

In the mean time the fate of the prisoners remains undecided, until the old men meet, and determine concerning the distribution. It is usual to offer a slave to each house that has lost a friend; giving the preference according to the greatness of the loss. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the door of the cottage to which he is delivered, and with him gives a belt of wampum, to shew that he has fulfilled the purpose of the expedition, in supplying the loss of a citizen. They view the present which is made them for some time; and, according as they think him or her, for it is the same, proper or improper for the business of the family, or as they take a capricious liking or displeasure to the countenance of the victim, or in proportion to their natural barbarity or their resentment for their losses, they destine concerning him, to receive him into the family, or sentence him to death. If the latter, they throw away the belt with great indignation.—Then it is no longer in the power of any one to save him. The nation is assembled, as upon some great solemnity. A scaffold is raised, and the prisoner tied to the stake. Instantly he opens his death-song, and prepares for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. On the other side, they prepare to put it to the utmost proof, with every torment

which the mind of man ingenious in mischief can invent. They begin at the extremities of his body, and gradually approach the trunk.—One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bole of a pipe made red-hot, which he smokes like tobacco. Then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting and searing alternately; they pull off this flesh thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood, in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them; whilst others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs themselves, in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours together.—Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls immediately into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awaken him, and renew his sufferings.

He is again fastened to the stake and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull; they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this bar-

barous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, act their parts, and even outdo the men, in this scene of horror. The principal persons of the country sit round the stake smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is the most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest between him and them which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost above human. Not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance, escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits, he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his reproaches even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out himself more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for an European to suffer as an Indian.

The prisoners who have the happiness to please those to whom they are offered, have a fortune altogether opposite to that of those who are condemned. They are adopted into the family, they are accepted in the place of the father, son, or husband, that is lost; and they have no other mark of their captivity, but that they are not suffered to return to their own nation. To attempt this would be certain death. The principal purpose of the war is to recruit in this manner; for which reason a general who loses many of his men, though he should conquer, is little better than disgraced at home; because the end of the war was not answered. They are, therefore, extremely careful of their men, and never choose to attack but with a very decided superiority, either in number or situation.

The scalps which they value so much are the trophies of their bravery; with these they adorn

their houses, which are esteemed in proportion as this sort of spoils is most numerous. They have solemn days appointed, upon which the young men gain a new name or title of honour from their head men; and these titles are given according to the qualities of the person, and his performances; of which these scalps are the evidence.

Liberty, in its fullest extent, is the darling passion of the Americans. To this they sacrifice every thing. This is what makes a life of uncertainty and want supportable to them; and their education is directed in such a manner as to cherish this disposition to the utmost. They are indulged in all manner of liberty; they are never upon any account chastised with blows; they are rarely even chidden. Reason, they say, will guide their children when they come to the use of it; and before that time their faults cannot be very great; but blows might abate the free and martial spirit which makes the glory of their people, and might render the sense of honour duller, by the habit of a slavish motive to action. When they are grown up, they experience nothing like command, dependence, or subordination; even strong persuasion is industriously forbore by those who have influence amongst them, as what may look too like command, and appear a sort of violence offered to their will.

On the same principle, they know no punishment but death. They lay no fines, because they have no way of exacting them from free men; and the death, which they sometimes inflict, is rather a consequence of a sort of war declared against a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed on a citizen or subject. This free disposition is general; and, though some tribes are found in America with an head whom we call a king, his power is rather persuasive than coercive, and he is revered as a father more than feared as a monarch. The other forms, which may be considered as a sort of aristocracy, have no more power. This latter is the more common in North America. In some tribes there are a kind of nobility, who, when they come to years of discretion, are entitled to a place and vote in the councils of their nation; the rest are excluded.

Their great council is composed of these heads of tribes and families, with such whose capacity has elevated them to the same degree of consideration. They meet in a house, which

they have in each of their towns for the purpose, upon every solemn occasion, to receive ambassadors, to deliver them an answer, to sing their traditional war songs, or to commemorate their dead. These councils are public. Here they propose all such matters concerning the state, as have been already digested in the secret councils, at which none but the head men assist. Here it is that their orators are employed, and display those talents which distinguish them for eloquence and knowledge of public business; in both of which some of them are admirable. None else speak in their public councils; these are their ambassadors, and these are the commissioners who are appointed to treat of peace or alliance with other nations. The chief skill of these orators consists in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expressing their thoughts in a bold figurative manner, much stronger than we could bear in this part of the world, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive.

When any business of consequence is transacted, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes.—There are lesser feasts upon matters of less general concern, to which none are invited but they who are engaged in that particular business. At these feasts it is against all rule to leave any thing; so that if they cannot consume all, what remains is thrown into the fire; for they look upon fire as a thing sacred, and in all probability these feasts were anciently sacrifices. Before the entertainment is ready, the principal person begins a song, the subject of which is the fabulous or real history of their nation, the remarkable events which have happened, and whatever matters may make for their honour or instruction. The others sing in their turn. They have dances too, with which they accompany their songs, chiefly of a martial kind; and no solemnity or public business is carried on without such songs and dances. Every thing is transacted amongst them with much ceremony; which in a barbarous people is necessary; for nothing else could hinder all their affairs from going to confusion; besides that the ceremonies contribute to fix all transactions the better in their memory.

The same council of their elders which regulates whatever regards the external policy of the state, has the charge likewise of its internal peace and order. Criminal matters come before

the same jurisdiction, when they are so flagrant as to become a national concern. In ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. If a murder is committed, the family which has lost a relation prepares to retaliate on that of the offender. They often kill the murderer, and when this happens, the kindred of the last person slain look upon themselves to be as much injured, and think themselves as much justified in taking vengeance, as if the violence had not begun amongst themselves. But, in general, things are determined in a more amicable manner.—The offender absents himself; his friends send a compliment of condolance to those of the party murdered; presents are offered, which are rarely refused; and, as usual, the whole ends in mutual feasting, songs, and dances. If the murder is committed by one of the same family, or cabin, that cabin has the full right of judgment, without appeal, within itself, either to punish the guilty with death, or to pardon him, or to force him to give some recompence to the wife or children of the slain.

The Indians that have had a long intercourse with Europeans seem to be greatly degenerated, both in physical and mental qualities. Those of different nations, and from different parts of America connected with Canada, come annually to Quebec, to Montreal, and to other military posts, to receive the presents which the governments annually distribute amongst them; and they are thus described by a recent traveller:—‘Conceive to yourself a parcel of men, women, and children, huddled together under a wigwam, formed of pieces of wood, seven or eight feet in length, the ends fixed in the ground, and meeting at the top, form a kind of sloping frame, which is covered with the bark of the birch-tree, to keep out the inclemencies of the weather—a very poor covering indeed. They are *half* naked, *wholly* covered with dirt, and oily paints, and swarming with vermin; diminutive, and weakly in their persons and appearance; and having a physiognomy, in which you look in vain for traces of intelligence. I do not mean to say that they are without the reasoning faculty, but they certainly appear excessively stupid. I understand that their numbers decrease every year,—if they were wholly extinct, I do not think that human nature would be a great sufferer by it.’

In fact, the eloquence and magnanimity which

formerly distinguished the American savages, is very generally upon the decline, as will appear by the following narrative of what lately passed at a council of one of the most considerable tribes.

At a conference which Captains Lewis and Clarke held with the tribe of the Sioux Indians, after they were all seated, their grand chief rose up, and addressed them thus :—

'I see before me my great father's (the president's) two sons. You see me and the rest of our chiefs and warriors. We are very poor, we have neither powder, nor balls, nor knives; and our women and children have no clothes. I wish that, as my brothers have given me a flag and a medal, (which had been presented him), they would give something to those poor people. I will bring the chiefs of the Pawnaws and Mahas together and make peace between them; but it is better that I should do it than my great father's sons, for they will listen to me more readily. I went formerly to the English, and they gave me a medal and some clothes; when I went to the Spanish, they gave me a medal, but nothing to keep it from my skin; but now you give me a medal and clothes.—Still we are poor; and I wish, brothers, you would give us something for our squaws.—When he had done, another chief, Mahtoree, that is, White Crane, rose: 'I have listened,' said he, 'to our father's words, and I am to-day glad to see how you have dressed our old chief; I am a young man, and do not wish to talk much; my fathers have made me a chief; I had much sense before, but now I think I have more than ever. What the old chief has declared I will confirm; but I wish you would take pity on us, for we are very poor.'

Such language as this is very unlike the independence which we are so apt to suppose an essential ingredient in the character of a savage. Indeed the complaints of poverty, and the supplicating tone which we find here, could only belong to savages who had been corrupted by their intercourse with civilized nations. The undisguised vanity of the *White Crane* is the only genuine trait of savage character which this conference presents us with.

The enumeration of the various tribes and clans of American savages would be tedious; and a list of four hundred barbarous names would little interest the reader. The Iroquois of the French are five clans joined in an old

confederacy of offence and defence. The Mohawks were on the south of the river so called; while the others were extended towards the lake Ontario. The Hurons were on the east of the lake of that name. But after the Mexicans, the chief tribe of North America was that of the Natchez, near the mouth of the Mississippi: they are distinguished for their adoration of the sun. The Sioux possess a vast tract of country bordering on the Missouri and the Mississippi. They are a very warlike people, and the dread of the neighbouring tribes. Major Pike observes, that 'their guttural pronunciation, high cheek bones, their visages, and distinct manners, together with their own traditions, supported by the testimony of neighbouring nations, put it in my mind beyond the shadow of a doubt, that they have emigrated from the north-west point of America, to which they had come across the narrow straits, which in that quarter divide the two continents, and are absolutely descendants of a Tartar tribe.'

The Osage Indians appear to have emigrated from the north and west, and from their speaking the same language with the Kansas, Otoes, Missouries, and Mahaws, together with one great similarity of manners, morals, and customs, there is left no room to doubt, that they were originally the same nation; but separated by those great laws of nature, self-preservation, the love of freedom, and the ambition of various characters, so inherent in the breast of man.—The manners of the Osage are different from those of any nation, (except those before mentioned of the same origin) having their people divided into classes, all the bulk of the nation being warriors and hunters, the term being almost synonymous with them; the rest are divided into two classes, cooks and doctors, the latter of whom likewise exercise the functions of priests or magicians, and have great influence on the councils of the nation, by their pretended divinations, interpretations of dreams, and magical performances. The cooks are either for the general use, or attached particularly to the family of some great man; and what is the more singular is, that frequently persons who have been great warriors, and brave men, having lost all their families by disease or in war, and themselves becoming old and infirm, frequently take up the profession of a cook, in which they do not carry arms, and are supported by the public, or by their particular patron.

They likewise exercise the functions of town criers, calling the chiefs to council, or to feasts.

The Chepiwians, or Chepawas, and the numerous tribes who speak their language, occupy the whole space between the country of the Killistinons, and that of the Iskimos, extending to the river Columbia, lat. 52 deg. By their own traditions they came from Siberia; while intelligent travellers, on the contrary, consider the Techuks as proceeding from America: but such interchanges of nations are not unfrequent in barbarous periods. The tribes near the source of the Missouri are said to be from the south, and their progress north-west, probably retiring from the Spanish power. The language of the Natches, and other nations in the Spanish territory, has not been sufficiently illustrated; and in the isthmus the dialects are said to be various, and radically distinct, yet probably, on a nearer and more skilful examination, would be

found to approach the Mexican: but no Pallas has arisen to class or arrange the languages of America.

The ravages occasioned amongst the aborigines of America by the effect of spirituous liquors and the small-pox, added to the gradual encroachments of civilized states, must, at no very distant period, annihilate the whole race. Several tribes have already become extinct; and others, once very powerful, are much reduced. The Society of Friends, in the United States, have lately sent proper persons amongst the Indians, in order to teach them the arts of agriculture and civilized life. Those who resign the practice of war and hunting, and apply themselves to the culture of the soil, may preserve the existence of a part of the native race, long after their peculiar habits are lost and forgotten.